Phi Delta KAPPAN

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FIFTY-THIRD YEAR

VOLUME XXXX
NUMBER 4

January 1959

A JOURNAL FOR THE PROMOTION OF RESEARCH, SERVICE, AND LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION

Phi Delta KAPPAN

VOLUME XXXX • NUMBER 4

Journal of Phi Delta Kappa, Professional Fraternity for Men in Education

For the promotion and improvement of free public education through a continuing interpretation of the ideals of research, service, and leadership

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Entered as second-class matter at the post office at Spencer, Indiana, under the Act of August 24, 1912. ☆ Published monthly, October to June, inclusive, by Phi Delta Kappa, Inc., at Spencer, Indiana. Acceptance for mailing at a special rate of postage is provided for in the Act of February 28, 1925. ☆ Subscription rate, $4.00 per year. Single copies, while available, 50 cents each, from the Bloomington Office. ☆ Official statements of Phi Delta Kappa are so indicated. Other statements and articles are published as expressions of the personal views of the writers. ☆ Listed in *Education Index*, published by the H. W. Wilson Company, New York, N. Y. ☆ EDITORIAL OFFICE: Phi Delta Kappa, Eighth St. and Union Ave., Bloomington, Indiana. ☆ Member, Educational Press Association of America.

Address all communications, purchase orders, and address changes to the Business Manager, PHI DELTA KAPPAN, Eighth St. and Union Ave., Bloomington, Indiana.

Desegregation? Or No Public Schools?

THE choice now is desegregated public schools or no public schools, and the Deep South is in the mood to choose no public schools. This becomes increasingly clear as regular or special sessions of lawmakers get underway in most of the states concerned. If there are those who still doubt that the American dilemma has come to this, they have only to read such factual accounts as appear in the *Southern School News* for December or the analyses of such practical men as Ralph E. Odum, assistant attorney general of Florida, writing in the Nov. 28 *U. S. News & World Report*. The U. S. Constitution does not yet guarantee free public schools.

In recent years, Phi Delta Kappa as an organization concerned with forging professional education opinion has had little to say about desegregation. Like the National Council for the Social Studies (see page 185), Phi Delta Kappa leaders have considered desegregation a matter somewhat outside their responsibility, a matter on which the moral and philosophic issues are settled (the fraternity abolished its "white clause" in 1942), a matter of implementation only. The fraternity's Commission on Educational Policies and Programs in Relation to Desegregation has stuck to its limited project of offering help to school officials of the South faced with the difficulties of drafting and implementing a desegregation program. This commission's diligent work has now borne fruit in *Action Patterns in School Desegregation, a Guidebook*, reviewed elsewhere in this magazine.

But Phi Delta Kappa can no longer remain aloof. The terms in which the issue now presents itself preclude this, if the fraternity's basic purpose, the support of free public education, is to have contemporary meaning.

Moreover, the issue as it is joined today is one on which fraternity brothers of differing persuasions can work together. Liberals who have been cautious can step forward with confidence. Conservatives will recognize that it is conservative in the best sense of the word to seek ways of preserving America's system of free public schools.

How can Phi Delta Kappans as a group and as individuals work toward the preservation of free public education in the South?

Alpha Beta Campus Chapter at the University of Virginia suggests one way to start. Members can organize or join a political action group calling itself the Committee for Public Education (P. O. Box 1083, Charlottesville, Va.). The September Alpha Beta *Newsletter* notes that too many educators are "standing idly by while Rome burns," and strongly recommends joining this committee.

The purposes of the Virginia Committee for Public Education are stated thus (in part):

1. We are determined to pursue every legal means to keep public schools open.

2. We are concerned neither with encouraging integration nor with perpetuating segregation.

3. We oppose any permanent arrangement which entrusts public education to private hands having no responsibility or accountability to the general public.

If such organizations make themselves heard in the South in increasing numbers, led by determined public school men, it seems to us that compromises short of closing the public schools can be found. One of the most promising of these appears to be (as Phi Delta Kappa's desegregation guidebook implies but does not say) the Pearsall Plan now in force in North Carolina. The man who, perhaps more than anyone else, has made it acceptable to all elements in his state is Dr. Elmer Garinger, who reviews the fraternity desegregation guidebook in this KAPPAN.

The Pearsall Plan has been attacked as "token" desegregation, and that is what it is. But token desegregation is not only highly important in establishing a principle—it has the infinitely important advantage of being *possible*.

Sociologists point out that the Negro has come further in the last eighteen years than he did in three-quarters of a century after the Civil War. This is particularly true in the economic realm—before World War II only one Negro in ten held a so-called "good" job in the crafts or professions. Now the figure is one in five. As Gunnar Myrdal told us over a decade ago, gains in other areas follow almost inevitably once the vicious circle is broken at any point.

But free public education must not be allowed to fall victim to the upward surge of an underprivileged minority, and Phi Delta Kappans must help save it.

—S.M.E.

Breaking the Learning Barrier

By GERALD L. KINCAID

We have at hand the means of breaking the learning barrier, this language specialist thinks. We still depend upon the written and spoken word in a day when the whole world can be brought into the classroom electronically. We can't afford to behave this way.

ADLAI Stevenson has been quoted as saying that "no one in his right mind would run for President a third time; and no one not in his right mind should be President." Perhaps no one in his right mind should attempt to add anything to the billions of words already written about education since the first Sputnik was shot into outer space; and no one not in his right mind should write *anything* about education!

Since I do not pretend to be in my right mind, I'll excuse myself for writing about a few of my educational hallucinations:

Hallucination Number I—At the time of this writing, we seem to be approaching the brink of mass destruction, attempting to speed up Nevil Shute's time-table (in his book, *On The Beach*), which had the last war occurring in 1961. So far, our education has enabled us to treat his prediction as merely fiction, thus increasing its chances of becoming prediction.

Hallucination Number II—At the time of this writing, we seem to be on our way to mass enslavement by psychological manipulation—if Vance Packard's book, *The Hidden Persuaders,* has any validity. The ad agencies, which for years have made us buy what they wanted us to buy, are now making us vote for whom they want us to vote. In the past, kings and dictators have ruled by the use of force. In America today we seem to be ruled no less by the psychological manipulation of the ad agencies; and education seems to be doing little to alleviate the situation.

Hallucination Number III—At the time of this writing, we seem to be well on the way toward mass engulfment by the population explosion—with population experts predicting that the world's population forty years hence will be more than double what it is today. Yet the education of yesteryear has not enabled us to solve the problems resulting from the population pressures of today. If the education of today is only as good as or a little better than that of yesterday, how well will *our* youth be able to solve the problems resulting from the population pressures forty years hence?

Hallucination Number IV—At the time of this writing, it seems that we are traveling rapidly down the road toward mass immorality, mass mental illnesses, or mass schizophrenia, torn between the conflicting admonitions to be both selfish and unselfish, to kill and not to kill, etc. Unselfishness is a virtue; but a sharp business deal is admired, finding a loophole in the income tax laws is smart, and beating the insurance companies is clever. Our youth are told that it is wrong to kill our neighbor; yet they grow up in a world in a perpetual state of war where they may be asked at any moment to kill their neighbors. And education doesn't seem to be helping us resolve such conflicts.

Perhaps it is obvious from the above that I do not subscribe to the "school of thought" contending that we need to return to the five major disciplines of math, science, history, English, and foreign languages, nor to that which wants to bring back a "love for learning," and a "respect for hard work." Both seem to imply that the education of yesteryear was superior to that of today. Nor do I subscribe to the idea that *all* we need to do is to get tough, to fill the courses with more "solid" stuff, to require more homework, to increase the number of school hours, school days, and school weeks, and to build more junior colleges. This last was being recommended in Michigan just before I left that state a year ago; and it is now being considered in Minnesota, where I now live. All of these ideas seem to imply that all we need is more of the same kind of education we now have or used to have.

It is natural, I suppose, to feel that the kind of schooling we had was the best. After all, didn't

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it make us what we are? And aren't we pretty smart? But this kind of nostalgia (or smugness) isn't very realistic. For the schools being criticized today are, in the final analysis, the product of the schools of yesteryear.

Although I agree with the critics that the job being done in our schools today is not good enough for learning to live in the kind of world that is today and that will be tomorrow, I do not agree that the answer is to turn back to the kind of education which predominated thirty or forty years ago. This puts me out on a limb where I can be the target for brickbats from all directions.

It is already trite to say so, but it becomes daily more apparent that it is time for an agonizing reappraisal of our educational practices if we are going to learn how to live in this rapidly changing world, which is the result of the scientific developments of the last few years.

It took hundreds of thousands of years for the human population to reach the present figure. If the forecasts are correct and the world's population doubles in the next forty years, the social problems resulting from population pressures will dwarf our present problems.

AS we have broken the sound barrier in aviation, so must we break the learning barrier in education. *And it seems that we are on the verge of doing just that.* The important discovery was made years ago in the field of science. As yet, however, we have not fully realized the implications of that discovery. Science teachers discovered that they had to supplement their books with a laboratory if the learning was to be efficient, meaningful, and realistic. In other areas, and to some extent in science, we have placed too much dependence upon words. We have operated on the premise (the basic proposition) that "words have meanings for people." Our schools, curriculums, teaching procedures, and testing techniques have been based upon that basic proposition, and a number of our current doctrines are based upon it. The following seem to be a few of the important doctrines around which many of our educational practices have revolved:

1. If you don't know the meaning of a word, look it up in a dictionary.
2. By looking up words in a dictionary you can increase your vocabulary.
3. If you increase your vocabulary, your stock of words, you increase your knowledge.
4. Reading is getting meaning from the printed page.
5. Listening is getting the meaning of the words used by the speaker.
6. If you fail to get the meaning, then you don't know the meaning of the words; you should look them up in a dictionary.
7. By using words you can transmit your ideas to another person.
8. If you fail to convey your ideas, you haven't used the right words.
9. If you use the right words and you still fail to convey your idea, either the other person wasn't listening or he is just plain stupid!
10. Knowledge and wisdom can be transmitted through the use of words.
11. Education is the process of transmitting accumulated knowledge and wisdom, usually through the use of words, to succeeding generations.
12. An educational institution (a school) is a place where we bring teachers and students together so the teacher can tell the students what the teacher knows; and/or where we bring students and books together so students can get the knowledge contained in the books. Then the students can tell the teacher what they know.

Shakespeare, over 300 years ago, seemed to have been aware that this basic proposition (that words have meanings for people) was not valid when he had Falstaff saying that the word *honour* was just air. Furthermore, he seemed to feel that it was foolish to behave as though it were valid when he had King Lear acting as though his daughters' statements of their love for him were a true indication of their love.

It seems to me that the converse of the basic proposition given above is a more accurate symbolism of reality, i.e., "that people have meanings for words." The following are some doctrines which seem to follow logically from this last proposition or premise, or to be consistent with it:

1. People develop meanings for words as a result of their experiences and the association of those experiences with specific words.
2. Since different people have different experiences, they are likely to have different meanings for the same words.
3. People's meanings for the same words will differ most when their experiences, in relation to those specific words, differ most.
4. Only as we know the other person's experiences, and something about the way he reacts to those experiences, can we have any confidence in our understanding of the meanings he has for the words he uses.
5. Since we can never know all of the other person's experiences, and his reactions to them, we can never understand precisely what the other person means by the words he uses.
6. People's meanings for the same words will differ least when their experiences have been

most nearly identical and for those words which are associated with physical phenomena which can be counted, weighed, measured, etc.; so that a person can have experiences almost identical to those of others. Hence our success in science.

7. Words cannot transmit or convey an idea from one person to another; they can, however, under the proper circumstances, stimulate memories and association of memories which, in turn, may stimulate the other person into developing a similar idea to the one in the mind of the first person. In other cases, the result may be the development of a new or different idea!
8. Knowledge cannot be transmitted nor conveyed; it exists only in the minds of men and, therefore, must be developed anew within each individual's mind (from infancy on) as a result of his experiences and his perception of those experiences.
9. For the development of knowledge, one needs experience (the more first hand experiences the better), plus the ability to see the relationships (cause and effect) of one upon the other.
10. For the development of knowledge, vicarious experiences can be useful to the extent that we have sufficient background experiences and to the extent the vicarious experiences are realistic—moving pictures about things that exist and can be observed, either with our sensory organs (eyes, ears, etc.) or with the use of extra-sensory devices such as the microscope and telescope. Reading can be useful when the reader has sufficient background experiences to associate with the material he is reading.
11. There is no such thing as teaching; there is only learning.
12. Valid learning is the development of pictures inside our heads which match the reality which exists outside our heads.
13. Valid learning is dependent upon previous valid learnings, so that valid abstractions must be based upon valid observations of fundamental or basic realities, the building of a structure of graduated concepts.
14. Valid observations of basic realities are dependent upon our awareness of the limitations of our perceptive powers, the limitation of our sensory organs, and the limitation of our background experiences; a recognition that what we look at is not what we see, that we are easily deceived; and that our memories are faulty and need to be checked by recording our observations.
15. Education, then, would seem to be a process of developing a structure of valid concepts (a body of graduated concepts) about oneself and the world around him—all of which enable the person to become more and more a self-sufficient, self-propelling individual, more and more a master of his destiny and less and less a victim of circumstances, of his environment.
16. An educational institution (a school), then, should be a place where teachers and students come together so that the teacher may provide the experiences needed by the child to develop the graduated body or structure of valid concepts about himself and the world around him. In many cases, it may be a job of providing the framework of experiences necessary to help the child "get rid of" some false notions developed earlier. For only then will he be able to observe and to learn from the new experiences the necessary structure of valid notions about himself and his world—pictures inside his head to match the realities outside!

If this analysis is valid, then we have been placing too much dependence upon words as an effective means of communication. The result has been a kind of parrot-learning, with too much repeating back of memorized statements without understanding—a tremendous waste of time and energy, plus worry and frustration by both teachers and students. Teachers assign lessons that make no sense to the students, and the students write papers that make no sense to either the teacher or the student! Each generation of teachers has expected the impossible and has complained that students aren't as good as they used to be; they can't read; they can't think; and they don't seem to care.

TODAY it is not necessary to rely primarily upon words to help the student develop an understanding of himself and the world about him. Through the proper use of movies and television the whole world can be brought into the classroom to provide the laboratory needed for effective learning in any area, to help the student develop more accurate pictures for the words he hears and reads. And, contrary to many public statements, we *can* afford to put such a laboratory into every classroom in the United States now!

A recent newspaper article on the educational TV experiment in Hagerstown, Maryland, which in three years will cover all of Washington County's forty-eight schools with more than 18,000 students, reported that the total cost of the project has been $631,000—excluding the wiring of the buildings, which was paid for by the county. The writer contended that such a high cost is one of the big drawbacks of such a program.

Let's get this cost business in perspective before we call it too expensive. First, however, let's raise the figure to $750,000 to take care of wiring

the buildings, so we won't be accused of distorting the actual cost.

Some communities spend more than $750,000 on a single building, while this program will cover forty-eight schools this year (the third year). If this still sounds like a lot of money, let's consider the military request for national defense, forty billion dollars for the coming fiscal year alone—enough to pay for more than 53,000 projects like the one at Hagerstown. Yet we would need only 2,200 such projects to reach every classroom in the country, and that many projects would cost less than one and three-fourth billions.

To do the job right, we might need to add another billion and one-fourth for developing the best possible educational programs to project into the classrooms. This would bring the total to three billion dollars for the expensive initial outlay for the first three-year period—a cost of *only* one billion dollars a year!

How better could our country invest a billion dollars a year?

Perhaps one other comparison should be made. Our present unemployment has been estimated as two million or more in excess of the normal turnover. At the rate of $10 a day, this unemployment is costing us five billion dollars a year in lost wages and more than that in lost production.

To put it bluntly, we can't afford to behave this way. We'd better invest a billion or more a year in educational TV, put some of the unemployed back to work, and at the same time provide the educational experiences our youth need to learn how to live in the kind of world we've been building for them!

What are we waiting for?

Engineering Enrollment Down, Education Up, Walters Says

► American college and university enrollments this year are at an all-time high, but engineering freshmen have taken a sharp drop, according to Raymond Walters, University of Cincinnati president emeritus and "statistician laureate of higher education." Most startling Walters statistic: enrollment in teacher education is up 18.6 per cent.

Walters finds 1,828,660 full-time students attending 944 accredited universities, four-year colleges, and technological and other schools—representing in all approximately 1,000 separate campuses. This is an increase of 4.1 per cent over 1957. The grand total, including largely adult part-time students taking night, late-afternoon, and Saturday-morning classes for credit, is 2,531,755, and this is an increase of 5.4 per cent over last year.

These increases have occurred despite such deterrents as expiration of veterans' scholarships, the economic recession, and June high school graduating classes in many instances only slightly larger than in June, 1957. There was an "unexpectedly high rise" of 7.1 per cent in full-time freshmen. With the exception of the engineering freshman drop of 7.6 per cent, which Walters termed "a shock," other categories of full-time freshmen are up as follows:

Teachers colleges and university education departments, up 18.6 per cent; arts and sciences, up 8.7 per cent; commerce and business administration, up 4 per cent; and agriculture, up 1.9 per cent.

Another set of enrollment statistics comes from the U. S. Office of Education. According to Commissioner of Education Lawrence G. Derthick, full enrollment of full-time *and* part-time students in the nation's colleges and universities last fall reached an all-time high of 3,258,556, exceeding last year's figure by 6.2 per cent. This includes 2,110,426 men and 1,148,130 women. The U. S. Office figures include all of the more than 1,900 institutions listed in the Higher Education section of the 1957-58 *Education Directory* as giving degree-credit courses.

* * *

Battle Over TV in California

California's hottest educational fight this year may be President Paul Martin's use—or misuse, depending on which violently opposed viewpoint is taken—of educational TV at Compton College. Martin replaces professors wherever possible with filmed lectures, projectors, and closed-circuit TV rigs. Nearly a thousand students in first-year psychology never face a lecturer, and over a thousand freshman algebra and English students are film-fed most of the time.

Martin talks enthusiastically of his "breakthrough in education"; scorns the experimental nature of other TV projects; states, "We are switching over." He expects to handle a 100 per cent enrollment increase in the next decade with only a 30 per cent increase in staff.

But students as well as faculty are cool to Martin's revolution; and the California Teachers Association has condemned his plan. For a more complete account, see *Time Magazine*, Dec. 22, 1958.

* * *

► People have feelings about words. Less-educated people have stronger feelings than well-educated. As a person becomes more educated, his feelings about words become less polarized, less certain, less dogmatic. (These are words heard at the International Conference on General Semantics, Mexico City, August 25.)

What Constitutes Teacher Competence In Audio-Visual Communication?

Know what a film-strip projector is? Believe it or not, many secondary-level teachers don't.

Here is a timely and authoritative statement of what the classroom teacher should know about audio-visual and how we may expect to teach him. It is timely because the federal government is about to pour millions into making performance more nearly equate with knowledge in the A-V area. It is authoritative because it has been worked out cooperatively over a period of more than a year by leading men and agencies in the field.

By
W. R. FULTON and FREDERICK A. WHITE

IN passing the National Defense Education Act of 1958, Congress has provided legislation which should go a long way toward bringing about a more universal understanding by teachers and school administrators of the role of audio and visual media in the teaching-learning process. This understanding has long been a concern of proponents of audio-visual education, and is closely coupled with teacher preparation in audio-visual instruction.

Title VII of the Defense Education Act deals with "research and experimentation in more effective utilization" of these media, and it further directs the Commissioner of Education to develop "new and more effective techniques and methods . . . for training teachers to utilize such media with maximum effectiveness." This, plus the fact that substantial federal grants will soon be available to match local and/or state expenditures for audio-visual materials and equipment, makes it necessary for all of us in education to give serious thought to the competencies needed by teachers to make effective use of these media.

Much serious thought has, of course, been given to preparing teachers adequately in this area. Long before the first college course in audio-visual instruction was organized (in the early 1920's), educators were aware of this need. Much in the writings of Comenius, Pestalozzi, Rousseau, and Froebel would, if published today, be classified as audio-visual education.

More recently, solutions to the problem of adequate teacher preparation in audio-visual instruction have been attempted through state legislation, teachers college curriculums, and a variety of in-service training devices. In 1934 the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania enacted legislation requiring all applicants for a permanent teaching certificate to have "an approved course in visual and sensory techniques," and since 1946 California has had similar legislation in effect. At about this time, the American Council on Education published a statement[1] on the meaning of audio-visual education that spelled out teacher competence and has had considerable effect on teacher education since. A number of teacher education institutions have required an audio-visual course for graduation. Today nearly every audio-visual center in the country is actively engaged in some kind of in-service training for teachers in its area.

Despite such efforts as these and despite the rather conclusive body of research produced over the last forty years that points to the values of this method of teaching, teachers today, by and large, do not take advantage of the audio-visual devices and materials that are generally available in this country. Recent testimony to this effect was given by recognized authorities in the audio-visual field before the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare. This testimony spelled out the need for developing teacher competency in using audio-visual materials.

In addition to an authoritative consensus on this need, much documentary evidence points to the same conclusion. A survey made by the National Education Association in 1957[2] showed, for example, that about 50 per cent of the teachers did not feel confident in their ability to use audio-

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[1] Noel, Elizabeth Goudy, and Leonard, J. Paul. *Foundations for Teacher Education in Audio-Visual Instruction.* Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1947. pp. 1-3.

[2] National Education Association, "The Status of the American Public-School Teacher," Research Bulletin, Vol. XXXV, No. 1, Research Division, 1957. pp. 30, 57.

visual equipment or materials. A University of Wisconsin study[3] reports that a great proportion of secondary teachers did not know what a filmstrip projector was, and that many teachers who used audio-visual materials felt they had not been prepared to use them effectively.

There appears also to be a lack of recognition among school administrators of the importance of teacher competence in the use of these materials. A National Education Association study[4] indicates that in 1953-54 visual competence was regarded in only eight per cent of the urban school districts surveyed as a required qualification for the employment of new teachers.

A good deal of study has been given to the problem of identifying and defining the audio-visual competencies needed by teachers. This is particularly reflected in the work of the Teacher Education Committee of the NEA's Department of Audio-Visual Instruction. During the past seven years this group has screened numerous lists of audio-visual competencies, methods, and physical requirements. The committee has formulated recommendations which were incorporated into the "Standards and Guides" used by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education in accrediting teacher education institutions. The committee also developed a detailed instrument for self-appraisal and improvement of audio-visual programs in colleges and universities.[5] This instrument was subjected to careful scrutiny in numerous teacher education institutions across the country. Out of this project has emerged a sense of direction as to what competencies are necessary, how they may be acquired, and who should provide for their acquisition.

Selection and Use of Materials

Teacher competencies in the selection and use of audio-visual materials on which there is general agreement may be classified under four major headings:

1. *Proficiency in selection and evaluation of materials.* The teacher should have knowledge about and experience in locating, selecting, and evaluating audio-visual materials. This includes sources of slides, pictures, recordings, films, filmstrips, posters, charts, maps, globes, television, radio, and community resources.

2. *Proficiency in the utilization of appropriate instructional materials.* The teacher should have a functional knowledge of the utilization of appropriate audio-visual materials. Effective use of audio-visual materials may be facilitated through a thorough understanding of the basic philosophy underlying the successful use of audio-visual materials; an understanding of the place of audio-visual experiences in the learning process; and an appreciation of the advantages of a wide range of instructional materials.

3. *Proficiency in the production of simple instructional materials.* The teacher should be able to produce some of the simpler types of audio-visual materials. Some of the most effective and inexpensive teaching materials are those made by teachers and pupils. These include such things as study prints, handmade slides, feltboard materials, bulletin board displays, collections of realia, tape recordings, and (in some cases) filmstrips.

4. *Proficiency in the preparation and use of physical facilities.* The teacher should have some skill in arranging the physical facilities for using audio-visual materials. A knowledge of the manipulation and arrangement of audio-visual equipment and materials for classroom use tends to encourage effective use of audio-visual materials.

The work of the Teacher Education Committee was augmented when four basic patterns for developing in teachers the necessary competence for the effective use of audio-visual materials were identified and defined late last summer by a group of forty-five audio-visual specialists from all parts of the country. This meeting, the Fourth Annual Lake Okoboji Audio-Visual Leadership Conference, was sponsored by the State University of Iowa, the Department of Audio-Visual Instruction of the NEA, and Teaching Film Custodians.

The Okoboji conferees dealt at some length with the advantages and shortcomings of four basic patterns of audio-visual offerings, one or more of which are frequently found in teacher education institutions throughout the country.[6] The patterns identified were these: the integrated approach; the methods course approach; the formal course approach; and the laboratory approach.

Theoretically, the integrated approach is the most desirable, but it is also the most difficult to perfect. Required audio-visual competencies

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[3] White, Frederick A., *One Study of the University of Wisconsin's School of Education Progress in Providing Competency in Selecting Audio-Visual Methods,* unpublished Ph.D. thesis, School of Education, University of Wisconsin, 1952.

[4] National Education Association, "Audio-Visual Education in Urban School Districts, 1953-54." Research Bulletin, Vol. XXXIII, No. 3, Research Division. 1955. p. 111.

[5] Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, NEA. *Audio-Visual Checklist for Self-Evaluating Teacher-Education Institutions,* 1958.

[6] The January, 1959, issue of *Audio-Visual Instruction* (Vol. IV, No. 1) is devoted to descriptions of teacher-preparatory programs across the country and deals explicitly with audio-visual competencies as related to teacher education.

are analyzed and responsibility for developing various competencies is assigned to instructors of appropriate courses. For example, psychological factors basic to the use of audio-visual materials will be presented in educational psychology and child development courses; units on selection and evaluation of audio-visual materials will be included in curriculum development courses. This approach has the advantages of reaching every student and of exposing him for a greater length of time to materials related to the subjects he will teach. Its biggest drawback is that it requires a high degree of teamwork among instructors—not always easy to achieve.

The methods course approach is similar to the integrated approach. While the same competencies must be developed, integration is limited to fewer courses. Psychological factors, as well as sources, selection, and evaluation of language arts materials must all be covered in the course on methods of teaching language arts. The advantages and disadvantages of this system are similar to those of the integrated approach, but it is a real problem to find sufficient additional time to teach a significant body of content in an already crowded curriculum.

Formal Course Has Drawbacks

Most common is the formal course approach, which is usually a basic survey course encompassing all aspects of audio-visual instruction. Here, the instructor is more likely to be an expert in audio-visual instruction and there is usually more time to develop adequate levels of competence. However, the course is often an elective and thus reaches a smaller percentage of students. Moreover, it cannot be so readily adapted to as wide a range of student interests as can the integrated courses.

The laboratory approach attempts to develop the same competencies on a more informal, experiential basis. Professional guidance and facilities are made available for students to work on projects applicable to their teaching interests. Credit may or may not be offered when an acceptable level of competence has been achieved. The laboratory is not synonymous with the audio-visual center. The center exists primarily to provide consultation and service for the faculty of the institution while the laboratory is a training center, primarily for students of the school of education. The laboratory approach is valuable in that it stimulates enthusiasm and awakens interest in students not involved in audio-visual studies. However, it is expensive and creates problems of staffing.

Basic to all of the above-mentioned approaches is the need for extensive use of audio-visual materials and techniques in all professional and academic courses, for teachers tend to teach as they have been taught. Likewise, the student teaching experience must be conducive to the exercise of these competencies. That is, a wide variety of appropriate materials and equipment must be readily available; the classroom must be so arranged and equipped that materials can be projected with a minimum of effort and a maximum of comfort; the "climate" within the school should be one which will encourage the student teacher in his use of materials.

Local Conditions Determine Best Approach

The purpose at Okoboji was not to single out any one of the suggested approaches for recommendation. Indeed, it was emphasized that in many institutions a combination of the approaches has been the most successful answer. Local needs and resources will be the best guide in most cases.

It was recognized, too, at Okoboji that while colleges have a major responsibility in providing for the development of audio-visual competencies, this responsibility must be shared by teachers and public schools through in-service education. There are many teachers without training in audio-visual education who will never develop audio-visual competencies except through in-service opportunities. Others who have developed a degree of audio-visual competence before going out to teach feel a strong need for additional work.

The best in-service programs are planned and carried out with teacher participation from the beginning, with administrators and supervisors in leadership roles giving inspiration and support.

It has become almost trite to speak of the challenges facing our educational system. They are so apparent: more subject matter to teach, greatly increased enrollments, insufficient numbers of qualified teachers, and the external pressures of a satellite age.

New Tools and Techniques Must Be Used

Yet these problems are very real and the greatest danger to our educational system may well lie in insulating ourselves against them. It becomes increasingly evident that the materials and methods of yesterday are as inadequate to present and future needs in education as they would be in science and industry. No one suggests that new tools and techniques by themselves can solve our educational problems. But it is more and more clear that the job cannot be done without them.

A New Dimension In Teaching

By KENNETH B. HOBBS

The State of Alabama leads the nation in the use of educational television. Hundreds of schools in an area of 30,000 square miles listen and watch every day. The network is growing and has added adult programming for after-school hours.

The author demonstrates uses of a weather instrument in TV-taught junior high science.

A QUICK glance at page 18 in the Alabama edition of *TV Guide* will generally reveal something like this:

4:00	(4)			SUPERMAN
4:30	(4)			MICKEY MOUSE CLUB
5:00	(2)	(7)	(10)	THE SENSE OF POETRY
5:30	(4)			JIM BOWIE
6:00	(28)			JUNGLE JIM

Wait a minute! What was that at 5:00 P.M.? THE SENSE OF POETRY? Yes, there it is right on page 18. This seems to call for some explanation; kind of unheard of, isn't it? But perhaps we should start at the beginning; and the beginning in our story is January 3, 1955.

There is a large number of educational television stations in the United States, but the State of Alabama is operating the first and only educational television network.

Television in education is being accepted as an extremely versatile and effective teaching tool, as witness these two views of educational television:

> . . . it seems probable that in the field of organized education, beginning at the primary level and carrying through higher education, television will assume an importance second only to the printed page.[1]

> If in-school television helps the teacher to teach the most difficult subjects and relieves her of some of her heavy burden, it can be the most important factor in solving the teacher shortage on the educational horizon today. . . .
>
> Far from adding to the cost of education, educational television might well prove to be the means by which the people of the community can greatly improve the quality of instruction at a lower cost per student than other means in sight—and at the same time make teaching a more attractive profession.[2]

Alabama's educational television came into being through a legislative act on June 16, 1953, and a live television broadcast of the inaugural ceremonies from Montgomery was the beginning of programming from Channel 7 on Mount Cheaha on January 3, 1955. Channel 10, Birmingham, joined the network in 1955, and Channel 2, Andalusia, was added on August 8, 1956. Future plans include the construction of facilities at Mobile and Montgomery.

The established network (see map) serves hundreds of schools scattered over an area of

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[1] Dartmouth College Television Committee, "Teachers for Tomorrow," Bulletin 1957, The Fund for the Advancement of Education.

[2] Philip J. Hickey, superintendent of instruction, St. Louis, Missouri.

more than 30,000 square miles. As of April, 1957, there were 465 television receiving sets in over 300 schools which were tuned to one of the three channels of the network to pick up a variety of programs ranging from primary music to high-school physics and chemistry.

Teacher Stays, with 21-Inch Assistant

Just how does all of this work in the school? Has the teacher been moved out of the classroom? No, the teacher is still there, but she has a 21-inch assistant that can enrich and supplement her teaching. Let's limit ourselves to one specific course for a moment, and see how the assistant is working. Suppose we consider a course in high-school physics. During the past academic year, ninety-seven half-hour physics lessons were presented from the Auburn studios on the Alabama Educational Television Network. These physics lessons were beamed into classrooms all over the state. Students listened to television lectures, saw equipment which was often unobtainable in their own schools, and studied physics with a teacher they had never met. Some schools with adequately equipped physics departments and well-qualified teachers used only specific programs when they felt supplemental and enrichment materials would benefit their students. Others tuned in to each one of the ninety-seven lessons and utilized all that educational television had to offer.

Schools Use What They Need

No demand is made of any school to adhere to rigid viewing rules, and there is no cost to the school other than the purchase of a receiving set and antenna. Each school may use that part of educational television best suited to its particular situation. However, according to the Alabama State Board of Education:

> It is the policy of the State Board of Education to encourage the utilization of high-school television courses and instruction sponsored by the Alabama Educational Television Network. In many instances, courses may be taught directly over the network in subject areas where well-qualified teachers are inaccessible to certain schools. In order to take advantage of these courses, a local board of education, upon the recommendation of the high-school principal and approval of the county or city superintendent of education, may approve for credit educational television courses being conducted by agencies of the Alabama Educational Television Network and approved by the State Department of Education. Credit toward graduation may be allowed for educational television courses only to the extent and under the conditions indicated below. . . .

And, of course, the state sets up certain rules to insure proper use of educational television in the classroom and to maintain acceptable standards.

All of the programs appearing on the air during the hours from 9 A.M. to 2:30 P.M. each Monday through Friday are termed "in-school programming." They may be of a direct teaching nature, such as the high-school courses, or they may be of a strictly enrichment and/or supplemental nature, as is the case with primary music and art. This broadcast-type of in-school program has one important advantage over the closed-circuit type, in that parents and adults in general can pick up these programs on their home receivers. Although intended primarily for use in the classroom, adults who wish to use them, or who wish to see the type of instruction their children are receiving, can tune in on any of the TV lessons. Shut-ins and children unable to attend classes for various reasons are often able to utilize television to keep up with their classmates. Closed-circuit in-school lessons are available, of course, only to those whose sets are linked directly with the broadcasting station by cable.

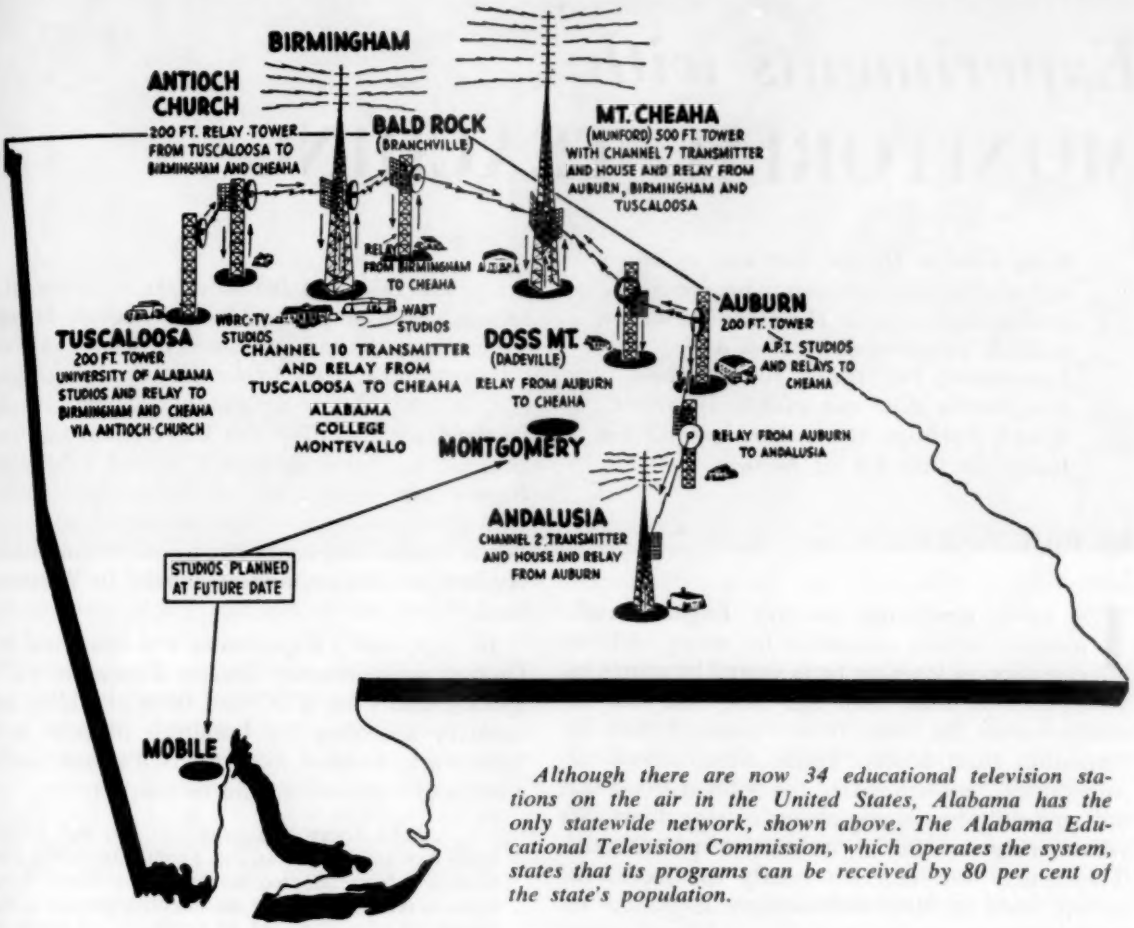
Network Also Programs for Adults

The Alabama Educational Television Network, although programming heavily in the in-school areas, is also providing much in the way of informative, public service, and adult education programs. The in-school time blocks run from 9 A.M. until 2:30 P.M., but network programming in other areas continues until 10 P.M., Monday through Friday.

The classroom teacher who utilizes educational television is provided with a carefully prepared study guide. The study guide contains introductory information about the objectives of the course, how best to use television in the attainment of these objectives, and other information useful to the classroom teacher. Following this introductory information is a day-by-day plan. A portion of each lesson outline presents information on how to prepare students for that lesson prior to viewing it. Immediately after this is an outline of what the class will be seeing and hearing that day on television. Lastly, there is a section which provides the classroom teacher with follow-up activities designed to further the learning of the students. Suggested activities for the students, motion picture films, filmstrips, and various types of supplementary materials are noted and their sources given.

Educational television instruction is no longer unique, strange, or unusual. It is here with us,

The Alabama State Educational Television Network


BIRMINGHAM
ANTIOCH CHURCH
200 FT. RELAY TOWER FROM TUSCALOOSA TO BIRMINGHAM AND CHEAHA
BALD ROCK
(BRANCHVILLE)
MT. CHEAHA
(MUNFORD) 500 FT. TOWER WITH CHANNEL 7 TRANSMITTER AND HOUSE AND RELAY FROM AUBURN, BIRMINGHAM AND TUSCALOOSA
RELAY FROM BIRMINGHAM TO CHEAHA
AUBURN
200 FT. TOWER
A.P.I. STUDIOS AND RELAYS TO CHEAHA
TUSCALOOSA
200 FT. TOWER
UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA STUDIOS AND RELAY TO BIRMINGHAM AND CHEAHA VIA ANTIOCH CHURCH
WBRC-TV STUDIOS
WABT STUDIOS
CHANNEL 10 TRANSMITTER AND RELAY FROM TUSCALOOSA TO CHEAHA
DOSS MT.
(DADEVILLE)
RELAY FROM AUBURN TO CHEAHA
ALABAMA COLLEGE MONTEVALLO
MONTGOMERY
RELAY FROM AUBURN TO ANDALUSIA
ANDALUSIA
CHANNEL 2 TRANSMITTER AND HOUSE AND RELAY FROM AUBURN
STUDIOS PLANNED AT FUTURE DATE
MOBILE

Although there are now 34 educational television stations on the air in the United States, Alabama has the only statewide network, shown above. The Alabama Educational Television Commission, which operates the system, states that its programs can be received by 80 per cent of the state's population.

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and we have only to find the best uses for it. There are, at this writing, thirty-four educational television stations broadcasting in the United States and Puerto Rico. Thus far Alabama has the only educational television network, but Florida and other states are planning similar operations in the very near future. The network has an advantage over the single station in that each of its studios can shoulder a proportionate share of the responsibilities and work involved in producing a full schedule of in-school programs. In Alabama, regardless of which of the three studios (Birmingham, Tuscaloosa, or Auburn) the program originates from, it is broadcast simultaneously on Channels 2, 7, and 10. The channel which viewers select to view educational television depends on their geographical location in relation to the transmitters.

An even larger step in the direction of educational networks has been discussed in recent months. Several of the southeastern states would be "hooked up" to make a still larger educational television network. This would offer additional advantages in programming, since the vast resources in talent, materials, and the like would be available from institutions in the several states.

► "The nation that produces in the near future the largest proportional development of educated and intelligent engineers and agriculturists, of doctors, schoolmasters, professional soldiers, and intellectually active people of all sorts . . . will certainly be the nation that will be the most powerful in warfare as in peace, will certainly be the ascendant or dominant nation before the year 2000."

—H. G. Wells, in *Anticipation*, written in 1902

Nineteenth Century Experiments with MONITORIAL TEACHING

King George III was but one of many influential Englishmen who were enthusiastic about the monitorial schools originated by Bell and Lancaster. Yet these schools had completely died out within 50 years. Why? Perhaps there are lessons for today in this bit of history.

By **PHIL E. HAGER**

IN early nineteenth century England rudimentary school education for many children consisted of learning facts shared by monitors, youngsters of their own age who had but recently—often the same hour—acquired their information from adults. Today some school administrators, contemplating the student flood that will presently be surging at our college doors, are reëxamining monitorial instruction potentialties. This article will describe briefly the monitorial system used in nineteenth-century England,[1] establish causes of its decline and abandonment there, and trace its spread to other parts of the world.

I

AN account of monitorial instruction in the nineteenth century[2] can begin with an introduction to the work of Andrew Bell (1753-1832), a St. Andrew's University divinity school graduate. While superintending the Egmore Male Military Academy in Madras, India, Bell observed native children sand-writing with their fingers. Sensing teaching possibilities in the activity, he had sand brought into his classrooms and drilled the older boys to teach younger students the alphabet by tracing the figures on their individual sand "slates."

Andrew Bell's report (1796) to the Egmore Academy directors on his nine years' superintendency was called, elaborately: *An Experiment in Education, made at the Male Asylum of Madras. Suggesting a System by which a School or Family may teach itself under the Superintendance* [sic] *of the Master or Parent.*[3] Copies reached England and by 1798 the Bell system had been adopted by Saint Botolph's School (the oldest charity school and oldest Protestant parochial school in London), at the parochial schools of White Chapel and Lambeth, at the Royal Military Asylum in Chelsea, and at Kendal in Westmoreland.

In 1800 Bell's *Experiment* was examined by a Quaker schoolmaster, Joseph Lancaster (1778-1838), who since 1797 had been providing rudimentary schooling for hundreds of boys in his Southwark, London, school.[4] Bell's plan received Lancaster's immediate, warm support.

> . . . I lie under [obligation] to Dr. Bell of the Male Asylum at Madras. . . . From [Dr. Bell's] publication I have adopted several useful *hints;* I beg leave to recommend it to the attentive perusal of the friends of education and of youth. . . . I much regret that I was not acquainted with the beauty of his system till somewhat advanced in my plan; if I had known it, it would have saved me much trouble and some retrograde movements.[5]

MR. HAGER *(Nu 905) is a member of the Department of English, College of Puget Sound, Tacoma, Washington.*

[1] In England the monitorial system was often called "mutual instruction" or the "new system" of education. Some writers referred to it as the Lancaster-Bell system of monitorial education, in recognition of the work of its two most famous popularizers. Often, in deference to the educator Andrew Bell, it was termed the Bell system or the Madras system.

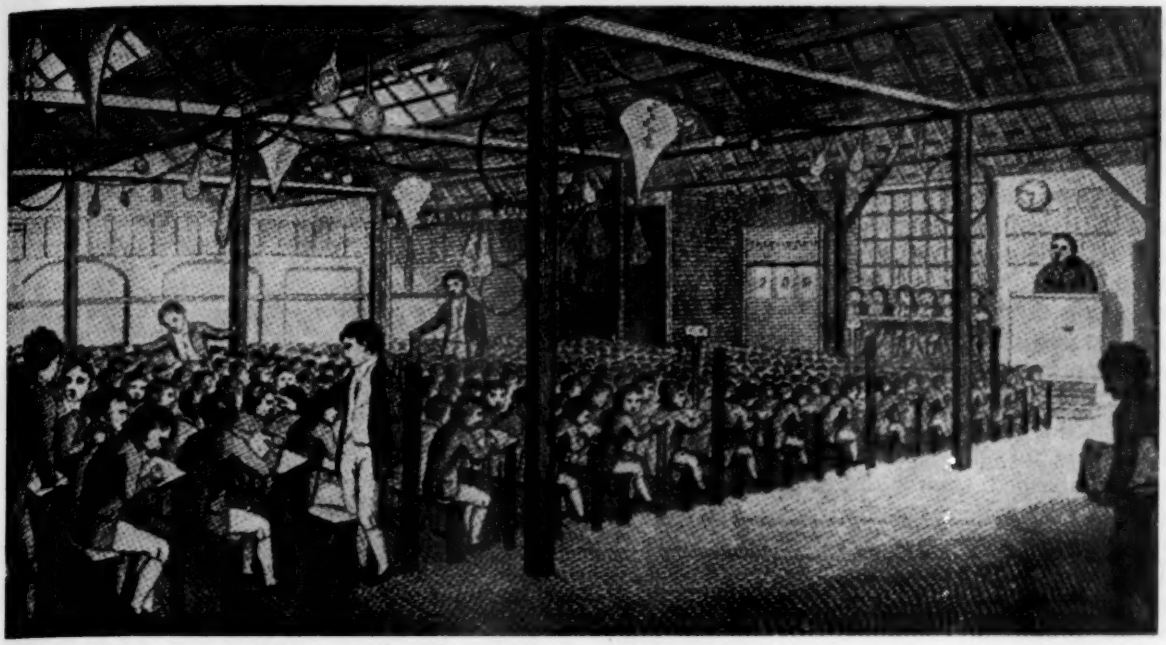
[2] The system had been used in England as early as the sixteenth century, by John Brinsley (*c.* 1570-*c.* 1630), and monitors had been prescribed in the statutes of several Elizabethan grammar schools. The Abbé Gaultier, a French refugee of the 1770's, had established a successful school in London for children of other French refugees and used the monitorial scheme once to remedy a wholesale desertion by his school staff.

The French historian and educator Charles Rollin (1661-1741) was familiar with the technique, Herbault had employed it in the Paris Hospice de la Pitié in 1747, Madame de Maintenon used the system in her school for girls at Saint-Cyr, and it had been an integral part of school programs of the Jesuits. Comenius speaks of the plan in the *Great Didactic.*

[3] Between 1797 and 1814 this book reappeared under several titles, was expanded from 60 pages to over 900.

[4] In June, 1801, Lancaster moved into new quarters for 350 boys in Belvedere Place, Borough Road, Southwark. This school was the one for which he became best known.

[5] David Salmon, editor, *The Practical Parts of Lancaster's "Improvements" and Bell's Experiment.* Cambridge, England: 1932, p. xxiii.



A British Lancastrian school of the early nineteenth century. One master taught as many as 1,000 pupils with the help of boy monitors. (Note playthings hoisted out of reach.)

Lancaster's plan, appearing in print in 1802, was more elaborate than Bell's.[6] Bell had considered twenty-four to thirty pupils or in large schools twenty-four to forty to be the ideal number; Lancaster thought ten to be an ideal "draft" (class) and urged in a favorite motto, "Let every child at every moment have something to do and a motive for doing it." He employed many monitors, for many duties.

> When a child was admitted, a monitor assigned him his class, . . . when he was absent one monitor ascertained the fact and another found out the reason; a monitor examined him periodically and when he made progress a monitor promoted him; a monitor ruled the writing paper; a monitor made or mended the pens; a monitor had charge of the slates and books; and a monitor-general looked after all the other monitors.[7]

Monitorial instruction required little more than a bare room, since for most lessons pupils stood, grouped about "stations" along the schoolroom walls where they learned by rote the information their monitors had earlier received. Administrators generally taught the monitors a lesson from a printed card. Lancastrian schools used dictation extensively, slates instead of paper, and wall sheets for reading rather than books. (A chapter of Lancaster's manual was headed, "A Method of teaching to spell and read, whereby one Book will serve instead of Six Hundred Books.") Pupils enrolled as early as age 7 and could remain until 13 or 14. At Lancaster's Borough Road School children were to have learned to read in twelve months, to write and learn simple arithmetic, geometry, and geography in three or four years; but the average attendance was about a year.[8] Promotion was possible in one subject a pupil was learning while not necessarily in any others. Rewards and punishments varied greatly in monitorial schools.

By 1805 Lancaster's plan had been carefully formulated,[9] and that year Lancaster increased his school accommodations to care for 700 boys and soon afterward for an additional 200 girls. The same year he was received by King George III, who visited the Borough Road School. Lancaster presented the monarch a copy of his *Improvements*, an account of his work, and a petition for support. The King was enthusiastic: "I highly approve of your system and it is my wish that every poor child in my dominions should be taught to read the Bible; I will do anything you

[6] Complete title: *Improvements in Education, as it respects the Industrious Classes of the Community: containing, a short account of its present state, hints towards its improvement, and a detail of some practical experiments conducive to that end.*

[7] David Salmon, "Monitorial System," *A Cyclopedia of Education*, edited by Paul Monroe (New York, 1913), IV, 296.

[8] *S. C. in Education, Parliamentary Papers*, 1834, ix, 20, Q. 262-267; and Frederic Hill, *National Education* (London, 1836), i, 72, 90, as quoted in R. K. Webb, *The British Working Class Reader* (London, 1955), p. 17.

[9] In this year appeared the third edition, entitled *Improvements in Education, as it respects the industrious Classes of the Community, containing, among other important particulars, An Account of the Institution for the Education of One Thousand Poor Children, Borough Road, Southwark; and of the New System of Education on which it is conducted.*

wish to promote this object." Royal patronage was unusually personal. It is reported that George III declared, "Lancaster, I will subscribe £100 annually," and that, turning to the Queen, he added, "You will subscribe £50, Charlotte, and the Princesses £25 each."[10]

Lancaster had meanwhile (1804) visited Bell and the two had become fast friends. Gradually this friendship was undermined, however, by a Mrs. Sarah Trimmer, self-appointed spiritual watchdog of the Established Church, who managed to convince Bell that the Quaker Lancaster was appropriating his "invention." The formal break had significant repercussions. The Bellites formed the National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church in England and Wales (1811),[11] and the Lancastrians organized to become The British and Foreign School Society.[12] For many years religious and factional considerations would determine the direction of English school education.

Thereafter monitorial instruction spread quickly in England. It was incorporated into grammar schools, private boarding schools, the public schools of Charterhouse and Christ's Hospital, and wealthy London families cooperatively formed their own small monitorial schools.[13] National Society figures reflect the popularity of the system:

	Number of Schools	Number of Pupils
1812	52	8,620
1813	230	40,484
1820	1,614	*c.* 200,000
1830	3,670	*c.* 346,000[14]

Similarity between the repetitive pattern of the new teaching scheme and the mechanical operation of efficient machinery in English factories recommended monitorial instruction to nineteenth-century, industry-conscious England. "The principle in schools and manufactories is the same," declared Sir Thomas Bernard, a founder of the Society for Bettering the Condition and Increasing the Comforts of the Poor. "The grand principle of Dr. Bell's system is the division of labour applied to intellectual purposes."[15]

> The overlooking teacher, the minding monitors, and the repetitive processes of learning the Catechism and the rules of arithmetic had their parallels within the factories throbbing with the new machinery; and too often the school buildings erected with such pride bore a family resemblance, both externally and internally, to "the dark satanic mills" of the period.[16]

II

THE decline and abandonment of the monitorial system were developments of an increased interest in education. One development was that instructors needed by sponsors establishing additional monitorial schools came increasingly from teacher-training schools and steadily replaced monitors. The National Society and The British and Foreign School Society trained *teachers* and assistants to meet the demand for instructors,[17] and when the government became interested in education, grants were made to train teachers, not monitors.[18] The other development was that the government's report (*circa* 1842)[19] that British elementary education was shockingly bad awakened school administrators to the deficient quality of the basically unimaginative and inelastic monitorial instructon and provoked improvement. The British and Foreign School Society, through a report of one of its committees, had earlier recognized the disadvantages of the mechanical instruction by monitors and in 1839 reported that they were "by no means disposed to bind themselves exclusively" to the monitorial system of instruction. Two years later the Society

[10] W. O. Lester Smith, *Education in Great Britain*. (London, 1949), p. 101.

[11] *National* was a term adopted against much protest. Since it was of French origin, it had a Jacobin taint.
Bell was appointed superintendent of the Society's schools and soon after was made an honorary member of the General Committee.

[12] Founded in 1814, the Society was the successor of "The British System," in turn the successor of the "Royal British (or Lancasterian) System" (1810), in turn the successor of the Royal Lancasterian Institution (1808), which grew out of a committee of three (formed in 1808 by Joseph Lancaster, William Corston, and Joseph Fox). The Committee was elaborately called "Society for the purpose of affording education, procuring employment, and as far as possible to furnish clothing to the children of the poorer subjects of King George III."

[13] Jeremy Bentham backed a scheme for founding the Chrestomathic (useful knowledge) Day School to teach a thousand boys and girls the sciences by "the New Instruction System." His prospectus was entitled *Chrestomathic Day School, or Chrestomathic School, for the extension of the new system of instruction to the higher branches of learning for the use of the middling and higher ranks in life.*

[14] David Salmon, "National Society, England," *A Cyclopedia of Education*, edited by Paul Monroe (New York, 1913), IV, 384, and M. E. Sadler and J. W. Edwards, *Special Reports on Educational Subjects* (London, 1898), II, 446.

[15] Sir Thomas Bernard, *Of the Education of the Poor* (London [?], 1809), pp. 35-36, as quoted in M. G. Jones, *The Charity School Movement* (Cambridge, England, 1938), p. 337.

[16] Smith, *op. cit.*, p. 102.

[17] Monitorial schools' most intelligent graduates could seldom be induced to remain as monitors for the pittance they received.
To provide its necessary teachers, the National Society established a model school at Holborn Hill, soon supplanting it with a much larger one in Baldwin's Gardens, Gray's Inn Lane. Prospective teachers in these schools did little more than master the mechanics of the monitorial system, however, and the Society, acutely aware of the need for more thorough training, soon opened five other colleges —of which three were still in existence this century.
At Lancaster's Borough Road School a normal school was established which trained teachers from all over the world. (About 1814 it became the property of The British and Foreign School Society.)

[18] In 1833 Parliament voted £10,000 for the erection of model schools and, though the money was not forthcoming until 1839, it was used by The British and Foreign School Society and the National Society equally to erect teacher-training colleges. In 1842 the government granted money to rebuild the Borough Road teacher-training school and in 1846 (and 1853) gave grants for the maintenance of other teacher-training colleges. In 1846 Parliament also provided competent monitors with fair wages from the government and promised them teaching apprenticeships for five years and two- and three-year scholarships in a teacher-training college.

[19] Lord Brougham's Charity Commission published (1819-1840) thirty-seven folio volumes of reports on British schools.

reported that "the British System as now practiced in the Central School may properly be denominated mixed, simultaneous teaching being satisfactorily united with that which is monitorial."[20] By 1847 The British and Foreign School Society replaced its monitors entirely with teachers and established, between 1855 and 1880, five schools to provide professional instructors.[21]

III

THE monitorial system also became quickly and firmly established in Europe.

France adopted the technique eagerly. In 1814 the French Society for the encouragement of National Industry sent four of its members to England to learn about the system. They visited Lancaster's Borough Road School, the National Society's Central School, and others. Within months after the deputation's report, the Society for the Encouragement of National Industry formed the Society for Elementary Instruction[22] and established an experimental monitorial school in Paris.[23] The French government appointed a primary education committee for every canton and granted 50,000 francs annually to aid primary instruction. Within five years 1,500 monitorial schools were opened![24]

Sweden, following the report of observers sent to England by the king, established a society in 1822 to promote monitorial instruction, and by 1841 had founded nearly 500 schools. In Denmark the system was being used in nearly 3,000 schools by 1831, and a knowledge of the system was made a teaching diploma requisite.

In Russia Alexander I commissioned (1813) an observer to report on the English monitorial schools, four students were sent to Lancaster's Borough Road School to study the system, and the czar himself went to England (1814) and observed monitorial schools in action. The monitorial plan was soon introduced into Russian military schools, and many nobles established monitorial schools on their estates. Some of these schools survived long after Russia's principal supporter, the czar, died.

Monitorial instruction was incorporated in elementary schools in Switzerland,[25] Italy, Spain, even in the West Indies and South America.[26]

In the United States the first monitorial (Lancastrian) school was opened in 1806 in New York City. The system spread rapidly over much of the eastern part of the U. S., especially in the cities, and particularly in New York State. In many cities the first free schools established were monitorial. The academy systems of the states of New York, Indiana, and Maryland (1826) adopted monitorial instruction. Mexico instituted higher Lancastrian schools for the Mexican State of Texas (1829), and North Carolina in 1832 proposed a state system of Lancastrian schools.

In 1818 New York City's Public School Society, which published *A Manual of the Lancasterian System* and greatly helped to popularize the monitorial system in the United States, invited Joseph Lancaster to lecture in America. Lancaster's welcome was enthusiastic and he assisted New York City, Brooklyn, and Philadelphia schools. In Baltimore he established a monitorial institute.[27]

Monitorial instruction began to decline in the United States in the 1820's and by 1830 few monitorial schools remained, although at least one school existed (in St. Louis) as late as 1850.

The far-reaching influence of American Lancastrian schools is glowingly summarized by Ellwood Cubberley in his *History of Education*:

> The Lancasterian schools naturally hastened the adoption of the free school system in all the Northern States by gradually accustoming people to bearing the necessary taxation which free schools entail. They also made the common school common and much talked of, and awakened thought and provoked discussion on the question of public education. They likewise dignified the work of the teacher by showing the necessity for teacher-training. The Lancasterian Model Schools, first established in the United States in 1818, were the precursors of the American normal schools.[28]

[20] David Salmon, "Monitorial System," *A Cyclopedia of Education*, edited by Paul Monroe (New York, 1913), IV, 297.

[21] At Bangor, Stockwell, Darlington, Saffron Walden, and Swansea.

[22] The Society still exists in France.

[23] The master was the Rev. Francis Martin, trained in Lancaster's Borough Road School.

[24] The best known was probably the Duchesse de Duras' school in Paris.

[25] The most famous schools to employ the method in Switzerland were Froissard's school at Lausanne and Père Girard's school at Fribourg.

[26] In South America monitorial instruction was unusually successful under the direction of James Thomson, a British and Foreign Bible Society agent.

[27] In 1825, while in the United States, Lancaster accepted an invitation from Simon Bolivar to organize schools in Bolivia. In 1829 he went to Canada where the Canadian Parliament made several grants to further Lancasterian school experimentation.
Lancaster settled in Philadelphia. He died in New York City in 1838.

[28] Ellwood P. Cubberley, *The History of Education* (Boston, 1920), p. 664.

► Men entering college indicate preference for engineering, business administration, medicine, chemistry, and accounting in that order, reports the U. S. Office of Education. Women prefer education, home economics, English, music, and business administration in that order.

At the College Level

A Volunteer Tutorial System

Civilization is kept alive by what people do over and beyond the daily task; by those who rise far above the letter of the law to its purpose and spirit, who do things they are not required to do, who go the second mile; who bear other people's burdens, who set standards for themselves higher than anyone else would dare set for them.

—*Joy Elmer Morgan, quoted in* A Guide for Tutors, *Hampton Institute, Virginia*

By THOMAS E. HAWKINS

AN effective tutorial system can do much to reduce academic failure at the college level. It can also contribute to the total value of the student personnel program. This has been our experience at Hampton Institute, Virginia, a private, coeducational, non-sectarian college of industrial technology, applied arts and sciences, and teacher education.

At the end of the first semester in 1946, the academic mortality rate among men at Hampton was relatively high. Many were veterans whose academic difficulties grew out of adjustment problems. The volunteer student tutorial system described here was organized to alleviate this condition.

A committee of men students who had honor grades in their major fields decided upon the following objectives, which they believed the tutorial system would accomplish: to decrease the number of failures, to stimulate academic achievement, to assist all students who need aid with their studies, and to establish better faculty-student relations. To achieve these goals and to assure the efficient functioning of the system, the following requirements for membership on the tutorial staff were agreed upon: a general average of B, an average of B or higher in the subjects to be tutored, and a willingness to render service without receiving financial compensation. The college also requires a recommendation from the chairman of the department in which the tutor is a major student. This not only gives the tutorial system status among faculty members, but it tends also to increase its prestige with the students.

Since the inception of the tutorial system, the general academic average among the men has improved and better faculty-student relations have been developed through cooperation of the tutorial staff with members of the faculty.

The total number of students aided has increased yearly. Tutorial services are available to all students, both resident and non-resident. Starting with 170 persons aided in 1946, the ten-year cumulative total reached 4,674 in 1956. (Average enrollment at Hampton has been about 1,250 students, half of whom are men.)

Among developments in the system has been a series of panels and clinics which give students practical suggestions on how to study, as well as other aid in resolving study difficulties. The tutorial staff has conducted clinics for students in accounting, biology, chemistry, English, history, and mathematics. During the past academic year these clinics served as the impetus for development of other study clinics sponsored by the departments of biology, business, and mathematics.

It is difficult if not impossible to measure the most important values of the tutorial system. In addition to being an important factor in educational guidance, it provides an opportunity for the gifted students to utilize their talents in the service of others. The gifted students participate in an unselfish, creative venture and remain highly motivated relative to their own academic responsibilities.

Another value worth mentioning is the contribution the system makes to the development of student leadership. The student who is selected to tutor becomes in a sense a counselor by the very nature of his work. Individuals who have study difficulties very often have personal problems which may lead to academic failure. It has been observed that in such instances the tutors have referred students to the members of the college personnel staff for help and guidance.

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That the tutorial system is beneficial to the tutors as well as to those tutored is suggested by the following comments from members of the tutorial staff:

"Being a member of the staff gave me the feeling that I was supposed to be a leader; and naturally this made me study harder in order to set an example for students I had aided."

"My experience as a tutor for three years has been quite valuable to me. I have enjoyed being a tutor as well as sharing with others the honor of being a member of the tutorial staff. Already I have realized many of the reciprocal benefits which result from tutoring."

"Tutoring has meant a chance for me to develop my personality by working with people. It has given me cause to refresh myself on subject matter that would ordinarily be forgotten. It has given me a chance to make a contribution to my campus community, since the academic level of the college determines its reputation and tone."

The tutors do not feel that they are being exploited. Tutoring has come to be regarded as an honor and there has been no suggestion that tutors accept compensation for their service. Several spend approximately fifteen hours per week tutoring other students. They insist that the work enables them to do worthwhile review.

Typical tutor staff report summaries follow:

Subjects	Number Tutored 1st Semester, 1956	Number Tutored 1st Semester, 1957
Accounting	19	34
Biology	15	20
Chemistry	12	10
English	50	3
Economics	6	23
Engineering	21	9
French	5	25
German	12	58
History	24	8
Mathematics	37	20
Music Theory	0	10
Oral Composition	5	11
Physical Science	10	14
Physics	15	3
	231	248

The contribution the tutorial system has made to scholarship is indicated in a letter the tutorial staff received from the freshman counselor. He states, in part:

"It has been my pleasure to read the Men's Council Volunteer Tutorial Staff Report for our first semester, 1956-57. What a pleasant surprise to learn that so many students sought the aid of your able staff! Yes, it is true that without the added assistance coming from the tutors some of our students would have found some difficulty in meeting our standards."

Students have expressed also their appreciation for the aid they received from individual members of the tutorial staff. To many of them it meant the difference between failing and making a successful academic adjustment in college.

Team Learning Faster?

► Team learning may mean faster learning. In experimental classes at Dedham and Wellesley, Mass., youngsters who were grouped in pairs and three's completed an entire year's spelling course in seven weeks. Each team is quasi-independent of the teacher, working out some of its own assignments and learning procedures. Bright and dull pupils may find themselves on the same team. But each youngster, school officials report, stays alert "rather than lose the respect of his teammates." A good deal of self-direction is called into play. Pupils find their own rates of learning, check their progress, set up their own goals. Superintendent Harvey B. Scribner of Dedham likes the experiment. He believes the team approach "stimulates initiative in skills learning."

Developing the 'Scientech'

► "Scientech" is the name proposed by educators concerned with the supply of super-skilled men and women the age of automation is demanding. The "scientech" is the sub-professional who works with the scientist in the industrial laboratory to produce the miracle goods of tomorrow. He has had educators stumped for two reasons. First, industry has not yet been able to define his myriad duties. Second, few curricula or courses of study for the "scientech" are evolving to serve his needs.

A new spurt of progress is expected, however, from the impetus of the National Defense Education Act. The Vocational Division of the U. S. Office of Education is building a team of vocational experts whose sole duty, under the act, will be to search for clues that will help develop courses for the new-type technician.

Some Arguments for Driver Education

► Why driver education? Well, let's see: last year nearly 80,000,000 persons in the U. S. drove an average of 8,000 miles each; 68 per cent of all employed people use the automobile to get to work. How well they drive cannot be measured; but driver education can certainly assure some measure of skill in operating the automobile. (This does not, of course, settle the question of whose responsibility driver education should be.)

MAD. AVENUE AIDS THE SCHOOL CRISIS

(or)

Gray Flannel to the Rescue!

(A Play in One Act)

By WILLIAM C. MILLER

THE TIME: The next recession.

THE SCENE: Four resolute men sit in the blue fluorescence of the conference room of the Wye Numb, Dye Numb, Sye Numb, and Jones Advertising Agency. There are Gray and McFlannel, brain power of the Madison Avenue idea factory, and Milltown, brother-in-law of the firm's president. The company president, Ernest (better known as Ern) A. Buck rises and says solemnly:

BUCK: All right, men, let's get down where the tire meets the pavement. We all know we're between accounts, and I personally feel that in our idleness the old gray matter may congeal. This buzz session has been called to decide how we can make use of this slack time. Let's all plant a seed and see what sprouts.

GRAY: *(Somewhat hesitantly)* I'm just thinking off of the top of my head, Ern, but what about giving some public service area the "big think"?

McFLANNEL: *(Enthusiastically)* I'll buy that—everybody's beating the public service drum. How about education biz? They could use some help.

MILLTOWN: Man like, that idea sings to me. Educationists' public relations are grimy.

BUCK: *(Hitting his palm with his fist for emphasis)* Touchdown! That idea is top drawer. I'm sure the team that made "Crummies" king of the cereal industry and made "hemophenoloslicilate" a household word can really make points for such a worthy cause. One thing that bugs education is that kids don't like school—many drop out when they're 16. Let's brainstorm how we can make school more interesting. *(Dramatically)* Put on your genius caps and turn the tide of criticism which faces education.

GRAY: I have an idea I'd like to toss in the pond and see if it makes a splash. How about teachers having cinemascope previews of coming attractions like, "Do Dick and Jane Find Spot?" "Does Columbus Discover America?" or "Do Liz Barrett and Bob Browning Ever Get Together?"

McFLANNEL: Good point, and to take a clue from the "Crummies" campaign, how about prizes in textbooks so kids will be sure to open them?

GRAY: *(Interrupting)* . . . And green stamps given for library visits, redeemable for Presley records.

MILLTOWN: *(Blankly)* Man like, ugly teachers are a drag.

BUCK: *(Irritatedly)* You're off base, Milltown. Way out in left field.

GRAY: No, Ern, I can build on that idea. Let's have a weekly beauty treatment as part of each teacher's contract.

McFLANNEL: And make clothes tax deductible.

MR. MILLER *(Alpha Omega 384) is an educational consultant with the Wayne County Board of Education, Detroit, Michigan.*

GRAY: How about encouraging barkers outside colleges at enrollment time talking up science and math courses. They could give the pitch that seats are going fast.

McFLANNEL: Our direct mail and telephone campaigns are first rate. How about the "You Have Been Selected in Your Neighborhood" dodge offering a week's free trial at a university of their choice and a free pearl necklace.

MILLTOWN: *(Gesturing excitedly)* M a n like, I got a hot one. Drive-in theatres, drive-in banks, drive-in restaurants— Man like, let's have drive-in school buildings!

BUCK: Pregnant ideas, all of them. Team, I'm proud of you. Now, let's crack the shell and get down to the kernel. Come through with some thoughts on getting support for education.

MILLTOWN: Man like, those educationists are eggheads.

GRAY: *(With sincerity)* Milltown has the handle of a good idea. The public must believe that educators are regular Joes. Let's get the names and faces of educational leaders before the public.

McFLANNEL: *(As if talking to himself)* Now, if we could only get some pictures of John Dewey with a tattoo on his hand smoking a cigarette.

BUCK: What are the names of some educational giants?

GRAY: Horace Mann . . .

MILLTOWN: *(Interrupting)* M a n l i k e Mann, if that cat's got a beard, he's a cinch for a pic on the two-cent stamp or maybe even the one-dollar bill.

McFLANNEL: *(Thoughtfully)* C a r r y i n g that further, the man of distinction should be an educator, especially since educational funds in some states come from liquor sales . . .

MILLTOWN: *(With a leer)* And get some teacher chick for "Playmate of the Month." Say, how about Marilyn Monroe coming out with a statement, "What I am today, I owe to education"?

GRAY: And soap operas—*Young Teacher Brown—Noble Mary, Back to School Wife*—you know, the one that asks the question, "Can this little girl find happiness as the wife of a wealthy and distinguished school superintendent?"

'Milltown, You've Scored . . .'

(Drawing by George Moffat)

MILLTOWN: And man, don't knock those L.P.'s. How 'bout recording some tunes like "Schoolhouse Rock" and "Curriculum Baby, What Makes Your Latin So Hard?"

BUCK: Motion picture theatres aren't being used; how about graduations patterned after the Oscar awards?

McFLANNEL: Yes, but building rental . . .

BUCK: *(Shrugging his shoulders)* Well, we'll sell popcorn . . .

MILLTOWN: Say, Ern, do you mean there would be awards like to the mother of the valedictorian for "Producer of the Year"?

McFLANNEL: . . . and the school board for "Best Direction"?

GRAY: These board of education members are colorless.

MILLTOWN: What's a board of education?

GRAY: See, see what I mean?

McFLANNEL: *(Raising his hand in the air)* Hitchhike on that idea. Get Zsa Zsa—what's her name—and Rubirosa to run for school board members.

GRAY: Yes, but the publicity they get isn't very savory.

BUCK: You should know that one of the

rules in advertising is to get the name before the public, whether it's favorable or not.

GRAY: Right, chief. On that basis, let's encourage a congressional investigation of education.

McFLANNEL: Maybe we could think of a new name. Rather than board of education, why not call it . . .

MILLTOWN: *(Interrupting)* Yeah, educationists' terms are a drag.

BUCK: Now that's a problem. How about this language teachers use?

MILLTOWN: *(Sadly, a catch in his voice)* Let's get something instead of report cards. My kids get bad marks. It makes me feel bad.

McFLANNEL: Oh, Oh, Milltown's nuzzling a pearl here. Why do they insist on using negative terms? "Report cards" brings to mind "Big Brother" looking over your shoulder. Why not call it "Indices of Progress"?

GRAY: And those marks—A, B, C, and so forth. Those are no good. Everyone *thinks* they know what they mean. Let's dream up some mystical terms. Ones the parents can't understand. You don't see doctors writing their prescriptions in English so that everybody can read them.

McFLANNEL: *(Pensively)* There should be some way to get citizens interested in what's going on in schools.

MILLTOWN: *(Jumping to his feet)* I got it! I got it! Build a board fence around the school —you know, with those little peepholes. People always stop to look through peepholes.

McFLANNEL: I wish P.T.A.'s had a greater and more active membership. In some schools the only good they do is to raise a little dough. Bake sales, school fairs, paper drives, and that stuff.

MILLTOWN: Why don't they just ask me to send them the price of a dozen cookies? That way my wife don't have to make them and we don't have to go to the school to buy our neighbor's cookies. She makes lousy cookies.

GRAY: Let me build another floor on that idea. How about P.T.A.'s selling tickets entitling the parents to a quiet evening at home?

MILLTOWN: They'd go like hotcakes!

BUCK: *(Leaning forward and speaking seriously)* Getting back to this discussion of educational terms. Who's got another gem?

GRAY: The term "teacher" needs a re-working. To me, teacher means one who trains someone. That sounds pretty menial.

MILLTOWN: *(Brightly)* The guy next door is a Chief of Subterranean Maintenance. . . He works in a sewer.

GRAY: Milltown's right. In schools they're developing citizens, improving personalities. I think a better name for these people would be Directors of Psychocultural Development.

BUCK: Any other suggestions?

McFLANNEL: Well, these labels for grade levels aren't very stimulating—first grade, second grade—can't we get something with the forward look?

GRAY: How about stratosphere, ionosphere, outer space, and so forth? Labels like that would be stimulating.

MILLTOWN: *(Questioningly)* Yes, but what would you call the kindergarten?

GRAY: The launching pad.

McFLANNEL: Names of courses in high school could stand improvement. How about calling Life Adjustment Classes "Basic Education"?

MILLTOWN: Or "Science 101."

GRAY: And terms referring to pupils are derogatory—retarded, slow learner, normal child. These are real depressing.

BUCK: Well, what would you suggest?

GRAY: *(Taking off his glasses and gesturing with them)* Look at it this way, chief. If I go in to buy an automobile and I buy the cheapest one, do they call it the retarded eight or the slow-driving six? No, they call it the deluxe model even though it's the cheapest one they got.

McFLANNEL: And when I go in to buy a bottle of hair tonic, does the clerk embarrass me by giving me the small, inexpensive size even though I want the small, inexpensive size? No! The large size is the small size and from there on they go to gigantic and then the enormous family container. These I.Q. labels are tactless. Let's have the slower kids called the "high I.Q.'s."

GRAY: And the normal kids "super I.Q.'s" and the bright kids "colossal I.Q.'s."

BUCK: *(Leaning back in a more relaxed manner)* Men, you've really done well. As far as I can see, there's only one other point that needs your attention. That's teacher recruitment. Who'd like to tackle that?

McFLANNEL: I have something I'd like to run up the flagpole and see who salutes it. Let's eulogize the famous teachers of the past in song.

MILLTOWN: Man like, Crockett, Earp, and Bowie did well with that approach.

GRAY: How about some TV space. Maybe "The Life and Legend of Friedrich Froebel."

MILLTOWN: *(Enthusiastically)* . . . And get one of them new little Italian cars to be called the Pestalozzi!

BUCK: Milltown, you've scored during the last five seconds of play. Now just time for one or two other suggestions before we call the old ballgame in time to get lunch.

McFLANNEL: I got it, gang, more money is the answer to getting teachers. More money means better teachers. If we get better teachers, we'll have better instruction and more community support—ergo, less criticism.

GRAY, BUCK, MILLTOWN: *(In unison)* Fumble! Foul ball! Strike three!

McFLANNEL: *(Looks crestfallen)*

BUCK: Sorry, McFlannel, but that violates a cardinal rule of advertising.

GRAY: *(Scornfully)* That's the coward's way out.

BUCK: You see, McFlannel, there's no challenge in solving a problem in that manner. Deep down we all know that the best product needs no advertising. Our *real* job is to sell something that would otherwise be unattractive. An approach such as you advocate is contrary to the Good Old American Way.

MILLTOWN: And it would put us out of work.

BUCK: *(Very seriously)* Now, any more radical ideas like that and you may find yourself outside the firm of Wye Numb, Dye Numb, Sye Numb, and Jones.

GRAY: Too bad, McFlannel, that's the way the ball bounces.

MILLTOWN: That's the way the cookie crumbles . . . that's the way the banana splits. Say, that reminds me, I'm hungry, let's eat.

CURTAIN

Syracuse To Train Overseas Workers

Syracuse University's Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Administration has established an Experimental Overseas Training program supported by a $150,000 grant from the Carnegie Corporation. A pioneer program will give special preparation to students planning careers abroad. The program will be offered initially during the semester beginning in February. It will lead to a master's degree in public administration.

Citing the need for such a program, Dean Harlan Cleveland of the Maxwell School said, "Although one per cent of the American population now lives and works abroad, the American educational system has not yet mobilized its imagination and resources to meet the urgent training requirements which these facts imply."

The program envisages a three-month overseas living experience. Prior to this, there will be an intensive study of the language of the country to be visited. Students will live with a foreign family, work with an American agency, and pursue a research project in the major field of professional interest.

Three Questions Raised Everywhere

► At a school for salary consultants in Washington this fall, Eric Rhodes, assistant director of the Membership Division of the NEA and former NEA salary consultant, said that three questions are being raised constantly all over the nation:

1. Should there be equal pay for men and women teachers, or should men be paid higher salaries?
2. Should there be a higher pay scale for high-school teachers than for elementary teachers?
3. Is merit rating feasible, practical, workable?

Last year NEA salary consultants gave help in twenty-four states on ninety-one different assignments.

Also speaking at the Washington conference was R. L. Johns of the University of Florida. Johns stated that in 1967-68 the schools will need about $28,000,000,000 in revenue merely to take care of the present rate of pupil growth and other needs in the area of school construction, etc. In 1957-58 schools received $11,000,000,000 in school revenue from all sources—federal, state, and local.

The Quincy Youth Development Project

A Program for the Problem Child

By MAURINE PELLMANN and GORDON P. LIDDLE

THROUGHOUT his or her school career, the student who is below average in intelligence and who also lacks motivation is a trial to school authorities. Such a child is frequently a behavior problem and takes much more than his share of the time of both teacher and administrator, but despite the teacher's efforts and the principal's exhortations, he usually experiences nothing but defeat in the classroom and wants to drop out of school as soon as possible. Such children are usually seen by their teachers and classmates as either shy and hard to know or as aggressive. They are very likely to come from certain lower class neighborhoods, are likely to be on the school discipline list, and often are in trouble with the court. Although these children say that they are interested in having a job, experience has shown that they are seldom good employment risks, and consequently have difficulty getting a job and even greater difficulty in holding one. The Youth Development Project of the University of Chicago is attempting to help one Middle-Western community of 45,000 learn to educate this type of child more adequately.

Planning a Program for Slow Learners

In planning a program for slow-learning ninth grade students, we who were to be involved in the experimental project began by recognizing certain basic facts. We knew that we would have to try to understand the limitations under which these pupils function; that all would be deficient in basic skills. We were aware that the slow learner is usually poorly adjusted and difficult to motivate, and that his powers of concentration and retention are very limited. Although every child had been doing below average work and had an I.Q. of from 70 to 95, each child would differ from the others and would require individual attention and "custom-made" materials. In order to work successfully, it would be imperative that we try new approaches to learning, making use of concrete materials rather than the abstract.

If the boys and girls chosen for this class followed the pattern of others who had gone before them, a large percentage would drop out of school as soon as they reached the legal age. Many would marry at a very early age and assume the responsibilities of a home and family (25 per cent of the girls in our group married within a year and a half after entering the ninth grade). We hoped to find areas of learning that would be of value to these students in their later lives, that would enable them to achieve better family relationships, better management of their homes, and a more positive attitude toward life than they had known in their own families during their formative years. We hoped to find ways to guide them toward a better use of leisure time, helping them find and develop skills which would be rewarding to them. One of the questions we most often asked ourselves was, "What do they really need to learn in order to become contributing members of society?"

Previous observation of slow learning boys and girls had shown us that within this group antisocial feelings and abnormal behavior patterns were common. Not knowing whether these feelings had been solely engendered by their home and community environment, or if the school was partially responsible, we felt that a major purpose of this program should be to see if change in attitude or behavior could be brought about in a classroom situation in which the work was geared to each child's ability. We had an idea that few would remain hostile and rebellious if given recognition, approval, acceptance, and an opportunity to experience success in various school activities.

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* This investigation was supported in part by the Moorman Foundation and in part by a research grant from the National Institute of Mental Health, Public Health Service.

In setting our objectives we felt that each child should be able: to communicate verbally with his associates and with the people upon whom he would depend for his financial security, to write an acceptable letter, to follow simple instructions, to use his reasoning to form opinions, to read a newspaper, and to make use of simple, practical mathematics. These seemed to be reasonable goals which many could hope to attain. One of our aims was to help these children learn how men and women earn their living in this community and to anticipate the needs of the roles they might play in the future. In addition, we hoped that each child would learn how an individual can best get along with others in the home and elsewhere.

As one of our objectives, we felt it necessary that we create in each boy and girl a desire to express himself, for within the group we expected to find the "sitters"—the shy, withdrawn ones—as well as the bully and the rebel. Establishing rapport between teacher and pupil was important if the essentially negative attitudes of these adolescents were to be changed. We felt that this could come about only if the teacher valued these children even with their present personality and academic limitations. If the teacher could lead children of this type to express themselves and feel that their expressions had value, perhaps the students in turn could take a more realistic look at the expectations of adult society.

Classroom Procedures

In practice the program followed a correlation of reading, language arts, basic business mathematics, and a modified course in civics. We planned such units as: "Let's Take a Look at You"; "At Home"; "At School"; "At Work"; "In Your Community"; "In Your Country." Each pupil spent half his school day with this group but was privileged to take other courses during the afternoons.

Twenty-five boys and girls were chosen for each of the two experimental classes. Most of them had experienced many years of failure; all had a fear of reading; and almost all had an intense dislike of school. Some had been declared delinquent, and truancy was common.

Though they came into the classroom with apprehension and antipathy, they began to show some interest as we started the first unit, "Let's Take a Look at You," for what teen-ager cannot be wooed by discussion of himself, his friends, his problems, and activities? As their doubts and fears and their feelings of inferiority came out into the open, we began to understand the handicaps under which each child had operated and the crippling effects his experiences had upon his developing personality. Though these feelings were lessened as the year went by, they were never entirely alleviated, for they had become an integral part of each child.

Endeavoring to create a warm, relaxed, and informal classroom climate which would allow freedoms not permissible in larger academically-geared classrooms, we adopted a kind of code which said in effect: "Here there are no rules. You may do much as you like, as long as you do not infringe upon the rights of others within the group, within the total school society, or the rights of the classroom teacher." They were surprised when, thinking they had been given complete license, they came face to face with the rights of others. In retrospect it would seem that perhaps the best learning of all centered around this far-reaching rule.

Emphasis was placed upon reading during the entire year, but because they had developed such an intense dislike of books, we made use of materials such as labels from cans and packages, washing instructions, recipes, beauty and good grooming hints, simple do-it-yourself directions, shop and factory memos, road and traffic signs, and used facsimiles of many items which adults use and take for granted in their everyday lives. From materials of this type the student often made his own practice sheets, which he printed on a duplicator. The students seemed far more interested in material in this form than they would have had it been assigned in a book. The idea of actually producing something themselves was part of this fascination. We stressed the fact that reading was a skill each would find necessary in day-to-day situations throughout his life. As proof of this we introduced things used in homes, factories, and businesses, all of them requiring some reading skill. The majority of those in the classroom were unable to recognize any but the most simple and familiar words, but using the methods listed above and games of various kinds, such as simple cross-word puzzles, jingles, and phonetic games, the students began for the first time to be aware of words in a meaningful way.

One boy told the class that he had a delivery job after school, but had been dismissed because he was unable to read the addresses and reach the proper destination. He was able to recognize his need for the practical kind of training we were attempting to give him and during the year made significant gains in his reading.

We did not rely on this kind of material exclusively, however. A period each day was spent with basic readers, skill texts, the Science Re-

search Associates Reading Laboratory, and dictionaries. We emphasized listening practices and used drill in many areas. Though training in the use of the dictionary must have been given repeatedly during earlier school years, the children were unable to do assignments requiring its use. They were unskilled in interpreting definitions in even the most simplified dictionary and wasted much time in looking for words. We spent short periods of time each day with drill in both oral and written usage. Instruction in the use of the library was carefully given, but even after the most thorough teaching, many remained hesitant about using the library, preferring to use reference books and materials found in the classroom.

The Vanishing Rebellion

We found that once the slow learning student can see his own need for any given learning, he is more prone to approach willingly the task of mastering it. In all areas we found success only after we had carefully pointed the way to present or eventual need. When it made sense to him, much of his rebellion toward learning vanished. His "I don't see no sense to that kind of stuff" attitude changed also when he was allowed to chart his own progress in basic skill areas. The graded material of the S. R. A. Reading Laboratory with its student record books proved excellent for both classes.

Prior to this year it has been our habit to refrain from mentioning the academic status of any particular child. Work was assigned in line with our academic goals for the child. This work was supervised and checked; necessary practice and drill were given; but no undue attention was called to a child's limitations. But perhaps this pattern has contributed to our many past failures. The slow learning child may see such assignments as meaningless work with no real goals in sight. However, helping him to establish short-term goals for himself which say, in effect, "Here is where you are, but you can realistically hope to be here if you are willing to work," is a great motivating force. It should be emphasized that the goals must be short-term and realistic, because the slow learner is easily discouraged if he can't see what both he and the teacher agree is progress. With this type of child it is far better to set the goals too low than too high. It is vital that he feel successful with an appreciable portion of the goals which he and the teacher set.

Telling a teen-age boy or girl that he reads below his expected level and permitting him to have material in his hands which offers proof of this can be a powerful incentive to work harder, if he is also experiencing satisfying classroom activities related to his felt needs and has a reasonably satisfactory social relationship with his classmates. We found that with others like himself he no longer feels as uncomfortable with his limitations. Children who could never face oral reading or book reports in a regular class can do so among their academic peers. When a student's progress chart begins to show an upward turn, and he sees he is no longer a hopeless failure, something happens that is stimulating to both student and teacher.

Each boy and girl particularly enjoyed using the tape recorder, and they never tired of hearing their own voices. We used it first in our reading program as a means of discovering and helping the student with his weaknesses. Later we went on to the reading of one-act plays. Practicing for a role they would record and hear was much more enjoyable than reading per se, and it was rewarding to see how hard some were willing to work to get proper meaning and pronunciation of the words they used. When the play was ready to tape record, complete with sound effects, it represented personal satisfaction as well as achievement. When the series of one-act plays were completed, two or three more enterprising boys and girls attempted to write their own. These were poorly done, and were exceedingly dull, but here at least was motivation.

We also used the recorder for role-playing job interviews. "Job application" was a phase of living that made sense to them. Rather maturely, they discussed dress, language, manners, and the ability to impress an employer. "Is it all right to say 'sir' to the guy who is interviewing you?" They would practice upon one another, role-playing the various parts while the class acted as critics. As they developed the ability to express themselves well, they began to show confidence and self-esteem.

Films, Film Strips Are Used

We made use of many films and film strips and found it to be most worthwhile. We planned for two films each week with pre-teaching and discussion, presentation, and post-discussion. Our films covered many areas of learning, but probably the most meaningful were those dealing with human relationships. Mature discussion came out of this, and we felt that many of the pupils were given help with family and personality problems.

They enjoyed the work assigned in mail order catalogues, even though it proved to be difficult. Order letters, letters of complaint, letters to establish credit, as well as computation of shipping rates, distances, and weights offered a practical

means of teaching many skills.

As the pupils became more perplexed over the problems this assignment presented, we made a trip into department stores where we were able to compare colors and sizes and read manufacturer's labels, washing instructions, guarantees, and directions for care of the different kinds of merchandise. While girls were interested and involved in this, many of the boys were learning about the cost of a car, its upkeep and operation, and auto insurance. During their free periods they were given access to a motor which they could tear down and reassemble.

A Community Study Unit

In the unit, "You and Your Community," the question was asked, "What does your community do for you?" This brought out so many possibilities that we could not hope to make use of all of them in any one year. One boy's query, "Why do we have to have those cops around?" lead us to a study of the police department, how it functions, its purpose, the duty of those serving the public in various places, the purpose of laws, the rights and responsibilities of each citizen, and how and why our officials are elected. Many of the boys and girls we found had very definite anti-social feelings which led them to voice antagonism toward all of society's protective and benevolent agencies.

"Let's Take a Look at Quincy" began with a study of the city's early development. When the question arose as to why settlers chose a river front as a home site, a study of transportation was introduced. We continued with a study of the industries located here, the job possibilities in these industries, and the skills and learning that would be necessary for work in them.

We visited the site of the new high-school building as it was being erected, and the children learned of the many types of work that go into such construction. The questions which came as an outgrowth of this led us to an experimental farm, several factories, and to other places of business. At the end of a several weeks' study, the boys and girls had a good understanding of employment opportunities and requirements, and some saw future job possibilities for themselves.

Before each field trip, a study was made of the company, what it produced or the service it rendered, the number of people it employed, where its merchandise was used, and where shipped. The specific vocabulary they would hear used in connection with each business was examined. This represented learning in other ways than by reading, and the children profited greatly from the subsequent discussions and film strips.

"Let's Take a Look at America" was the least successful unit that we had, for we soon learned that these boys and girls knew nothing of their own country, had little if any knowledge of places and distances, and little interest in learning of these things. Nevertheless, we did our best to make the unit meaningful. We used wall charts, highway maps, and films. We wrote letters asking for information and secured folders describing interesting places we had located. As we received the folders, we figured distance, what it would cost to reach that place, how we would travel, and what we would expect to find there. We studied major waterways and highways and how they have influenced the country's development.

During the afternoon periods, when many of the class were in study hall because they had chosen only required subjects, we endeavored to bring many activities to their attention. Working individually or in small groups, many children became interested in crafts, home decoration, refinishing of furniture, hand sewing, knitting, painting, typing, and in various educational games.

Discovering that these boys and girls never took an active part in extra-curricular activities and that they never attended dances and parties, we encouraged them to plan a party for members of the two classes. They appointed a committee, did careful, if noisy, planning, and the subsequent party was a great success, leading to other activities during the year such as picnics and skating parties. This represented practical training in costs of food, numbers to serve, collections, and in keeping accounts.

At Christmas time we were given permission to display and sell the items we had made in our afternoon craft period. All business was handled by the boys and girls themselves. They did the purchasing, figured cost per item, set up the displays, managed the sales, figured the profits, and became somewhat efficient in simplified bookkeeping. A couple of the boys even made a door-to-door survey to find out what color housewives prefer in hot pads!

What Does Such a Program Cost?

There have been only three-fourths as many pupils in slow learner sections as in other classes. This accounts for the major additional cost of the program. We think, however, that an adequate program for slow learners should reduce the number of school disciplinarians needed, somewhat reducing overall costs. Furthermore, the experience of a number of our teachers in regular class-

rooms indicates that the removal of the slow learners has enabled them to accomplish much more than previously with their average and above average students.

Our teachers think that adequate materials and supplies for a slow learner classroom would cost from $150 to $200 for the first year. Additional sections taught by the same teacher would cost very little more. In subsequent years money for movies, field trips, and replacement of materials should not be more than $100 a year. After the initial expense of setting up the curriculum, materials for a section of slow learners should cost the school system very little, if any, more than for any other classroom.

In this experiment each classroom had a used typewriter and occasional access to a tape recorder. These were desirable, not essential materials.

Evaluation

In reviewing the aims and accomplishments of this experimental project, one must remember that these boys and girls were the non-participating members of junior high, and that any small confidence they gained was important. Though we led them into activities that we assume all young people enjoy, these children had had no previous experiences with many commonplace activities. We expect a teen-ager to be able to express himself, to form an opinion, to serve on a committee, to plan refreshments for a party, to make a financial report; but for these youngsters these were new and challenging experiences. To manage them successfully represented real growth in a positive direction.

For some of the most seriously maladjusted, however, this program came too late to hope for any positive gains. Though they said they liked school better, these children failed to show much improvement in any area. As a result of this experience, much earlier identification and treatment of the problems of these children is now a part of a long range program for slow learners in this school system.

It would be difficult to list actual accomplishments, for though we did both pre- and post-testing, only a few children showed a marked improvement in their academic skills. Some discovered that as they improved in reading skill their enjoyment of reading increased. Some improved in the art of written communication; some improved in math; and all showed great gains in oral communication.

The most meaningful growth which we who worked so closely with them saw was the improvement in attitude and behavior. Most of the children learned to cooperate with one another in the group, developing a healthy give-and-take that was a far cry from the attention-getting, bickering behavior of the first weeks. They learned to respect the rights and opinions of others, and were quick to give praise where previously they had voiced only censure. Their gains in this area were borne out by a drop in the number of delinquencies committed by the experimental group while the delinquencies of the control group increased sharply during the same period.

As the year progressed, there were far fewer disciplinary problems and less truancy. The boys and girls themselves recognized the fact that they no longer hated school or looked with dread to each school day. There was a decided improvement in the dress and grooming of the girls. One girl who had been absent sixty-two days the year before was overhead to say, "I wouldn't dare miss school this year; I might miss something." After a time, many of the students seemed to lose much of their defeated attitude. They seemed to feel that they weren't much different from other students their own age. Scores on the California Psychological Inventory showed that as a group they made significant gains in personality adjustment during the two-year period of the study, but that most were still below average on such scales as self-assurance, self-control, and intellectual efficiency.

At the conclusion of this two-year experiment, follow-up interviews indicated that many children in these classes felt that had all their school life been as meaningful as these classes they would not have failed as students and would have been motivated toward high-school graduation.

As teachers we felt that we had gained an insight into the dilemma of the slow learning pupil, and that we had found at least partial answers to many of our educational problems. We had learned that for such children school need not be a place to be hated and shunned. Forcing the child of below average ability to share class work with others so much more capable than himself tends to make him feel inferior, unacceptable, and rebellious. One becomes convinced that many of the abnormal behavior patterns coming to the surface in our problem boys and girls are the voice they give to the feeling of frustration suffered in the classroom. The boys and girls in these classes seemed to relax in the security of a classroom where they knew they were accepted, and they leaned heavily on the affection and warmth of the teacher. Even our limited success has been encouraging. Given time and insight, our batting average with this type of child should improve.

The Review of Related Research

By C. M. LINDVALL

THE written reports of research undertaken to fulfill a requirement for a master's or doctor's degree in education usually include a section presenting a review of related research. However, in many cases the careful reader will be somewhat puzzled as to how this review is related to the rest of the report or what exact purpose it is expected to serve. Too often it seems to be more of an appendage than an integral part of the total report. In some cases it appears that the researcher has a feeling that every candidate for an advanced degree has a responsibility for preparing an annotated bibliography of researches somewhat related to his own and is attaching his contribution to his research report. No real attempt is made to show the exact relationship between the reviewed research and the project of the candidate.

Most persons planning a thesis or dissertation probably look upon the review of related research as one of the easier tasks with which they are faced. They realize that it will involve quite a bit of their time but feel that it shouldn't require a great deal of original thinking and planning such as will be called for in the major part of their study. This project should be relatively simple. However, these same persons may also have only a hazy idea as to the purpose of the review and are probably influenced by certain misconceptions. It may well be suggested that these misconceptions and the related misuse of the review of research are one of the fundamental weaknesses in educational research.

Common Misconceptions

One of the erroneous ideas concerning the purpose of the review has already been mentioned. This is the feeling that every candidate is responsible for producing an annotated bibliography of some length. This is, of course, not the reason for the review. The candidate's responsibility is to plan, to pursue, and to report a significant piece of research. Other agencies can do a much more extensive and satisfactory job of preparing annotated bibliographies. This is the major purpose of various encyclopedias, review journals, and volumes of abstracts. Duplicating some small part of the work of these agencies is no contribution.

Another, and perhaps even more common, misconception is the idea that the review is presented to show that the candidate's research has not been done previously by someone else. But any necessarily limited review cannot provide this proof of originality. At best it can only show that no piece of research reviewed by the candidate is exactly the same as his study. With educational research being carried on at a multitude of educational institutions and by numerous other agencies, it is extremely doubtful that any candidate can even discover references to any considerable portion of the studies that have been carried out in his area of interest. Also, in an area such as education where problems are so numerous and so complex and where the application of scientific methods is relatively new, it is doubtful that the question of the uniqueness of research is nearly as important as many other questions. It might be suggested that finding the ways in which studies are comparable and in which they are related to one another is a more important problem. In any case, the relatively small number of researches that can be reviewed by any one candidate cannot provide conclusive proof of originality. The review of related research can serve a more important and a more feasible purpose than this.

True Purpose of the Review

The problems which must be the subject of educational research are many and complex. No great contribution to their solution can be made by isolated research findings. As with other areas of scientific study, real solutions can be expected only when a cooperative attack is made, when the findings of one researcher can be combined with those of many others. This requires that studies be related to one another. It means that the person

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contemplating a research study should not think of himself as a lone pioneer making an original and independent attack in some problem area. Rather, it means that he should thoroughly familiarize himself with what is already known in that area. He must become acquainted with the significant research findings. In this way he can identify some of the exact spots where there is a void in existing knowledge. He can ask the important questions and formulate significant research problems. This will also enable him to see how his problem and his findings will relate to other researches and how his efforts, when combined with those of others, can help to complete some total picture. It is this fitting of a particular project into a broader scheme, enabling one to see its importance and to relate it to many other studies, that is the real purpose of the review of related research. Through this study of existing research, the candidate locates and defines his exact problem. Then, in writing up this review, he so organizes these previous findings that the reader can see just why the problem is important and how it is going to fit into a wider pattern of research results.

The Review As a Contribution to Theory

This purpose of the review of research may also be viewed in another manner. It may be considered as a small contribution to the building of research theory.

If one reads very much in research journals or in books dealing with principles of research, particularly in the behavioral sciences, he will repeatedly encounter the charge that a major weakness of research in these areas is the lack of any framework of theory to serve as the base for research problems. Despite the recurrence of this criticism, however, few of the critics offer any suggestions as to how the condition might be improved. The typical candidate for a graduate degree is probably quite puzzled as to what he can do about this situation. In many cases it is even likely that he has no clear conception of what is meant by theory when the term is used in this connection.

Of course, one of the classic models of what is meant by a framework of theory is the periodic table and its accompanying concepts of atomic weights and atomic and molecular structure. Here a combination of speculation and of known facts produced by research has resulted in a theory regarding the structure of elements and of how they combine to form compounds. This has served as the basic point of origin for countless research problems. It has served as the basis for hypotheses of this type: "If these two elements have these properties, it should be possible to combine them through this process to form this compound." The resulting research has, in turn, served to strengthen, to clarify, or to modify the theory. This is the way in which good theory functions. It serves as a source for meaningful research problems and logical hypotheses and also provides an organized system which permits new research results to make a contribution to some total picture.

We are forced to admit that the critics are correct in that there is little, if any, of this in education. Perhaps a major reason for this is the complexity of the relationships that must be studied. However, it is probably also due to the fact that not enough persons have made serious attempts to do this type of thinking and planning. Certainly we cannot expect the average candidate for an advanced degree to make any major contribution to theory building; but we should expect him to make some attempt in this direction. He should do this in his review of related research. Here he should bring together the results of existing research, show how the results are related, and thereby provide some type of organization of the existing knowledge in his area of interest. In this way he can provide a framework which shows that there is a certain void which his study will attempt to fill. This framework will serve to justify the meaningfulness of his problem and will show how it will help to supplement others in enlarging knowledge in a particular area. This type of review can make the research much more meaningful to the reader and should also suggest additional important research problems.

It is unlikely that any one student is going to produce a very complete or a fully satisfactory framework of theory. However, if every person obtaining an advanced degree makes a real effort to organize the research and thinking in some limited area, we will have a vast number of persons working at this important task. Their efforts will, at least, be a step in the right direction.

With any research study the review of related research can serve its proper function only if it is an integral part of the total project. It cannot be a loosely related supplement. It must provide the framework of thought which produces an important problem, documents its significance, and fits it into its proper place in an organized field of knowledge. If every thesis and dissertation includes this type of review, educational research should increase in significance and usefulness.

The Federal Income Tax and Education

Justice for 1,250,000 educators was wrested from the Internal Revenue Service last April. . . But wait! There are still some weird defects in the Code.

By **CLIFFORD P. HOOKER**

ON April 5, 1958, the Internal Revenue Service passed a new regulation permitting teachers to deduct certain academic expenses when reporting income. In many cases these expenses may include tuition, travel, meals, and lodging. Educators are willing to forget that others have for years received comparable deductions for expenses incidental to growth in their vocations. Justice to 1,250,000 educators has been realized.

With the winning of this victory for justice, some of us may be inclined to assume that all is well with the Internal Revenue Code, while as a matter of fact this code preserves some other provisions that continue to have an unhappy effect on educators and education generally. It is the purpose of this article to point out two of these provisions. At the risk of being labeled a cynic, the writer will refer to one as "blessed are those of high income," the other, "federal aid to education in reverse."

Blessed Are Those of High Income

A foreign observer in this country might well remark, "How clever these Americans! Their federal income tax structure recognizes that it costs more for wealthy persons to rear their children than it costs for poor people to rear theirs." Or a native observer might suggest that in spite of the many progressive features of the Internal Revenue Code, it entitles the spouse of a wage earner with a high income to a greater personal allowance than the spouse of one whose earnings are meager.

Both observations are correct. Because exemptions for dependents are subtracted from the adjusted gross income *before* the rate of taxation is applied, the graduated rates that are applied to the income are also applied to the exemptions. Perhaps the following example will make this point clear.

EXAMPLE: Blessed Are Those of High Income

Here is a comparison of the income tax returns of two individuals with the same number of dependents but with different incomes. Note that wage earner "A" with the greater income is allowed over three times as much tax relief for his wife and two children as is allowed wage earner "B."

	Wage Earner A	Wage Earner B
Adjusted gross income, less all deductions	$55,000	$3,000
Less four exemptions	2,400	2,400
Income subject to tax	52,600	600
Tax rate	62% (On all over $52,000)	20% (on total amount)
Net Savings for four dependents	$1,488 ($2,400 x 62%)	$ 480 ($2,400 x 20%)

Contributions to educational, religious, and charitable institutions should continue to be deducted from the adjusted gross income *before* the tax rate is applied. This provision encourages wage earners, especially those in high income brackets, to contribute to such worthy causes. However, there seems to be no logic for including exemptions for dependents in this category. Every taxpayer is entitled to the same amount of tax relief for each dependent. A fixed amount of tax relief for each dependent, available to all wage earners, would correct this condition. Under this plan the dependent allowance would be deducted *after* the tax has been computed. This fixed dependent allowance could be set at a figure that would not reduce the total amount of income tax that is now collected by the federal government.

Federal Aid to Education in Reverse

The pros and cons of greater federal participation in the financing of public education has been

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discussed for decades and there appears to be no end. Those favoring more federal funds for public education normally present some convincing statistics concerning the need for equalization of educational opportunities between the states and the growing trend toward a national rather than a local economy. Opponents to extending federal support rarely deny that huge differences in educational opportunities exist between the states, but oppose greater federal participation on other bases. Both sides to the argument are agreed that the federal income tax system pre-empts, to some degree, the taxing power of the school board, but the impact of local taxes on money available to the federal government has received little attention. Indeed, the federal income tax structure permits local school boards to siphon off revenue that would otherwise be deposited in the coffers of the federal government. Furthermore, since local taxes represent a deduction that is made *before* the tax rate is applied, this "withheld" revenue is graduated in favor of the wealthy communities. This is equivalent to federal support distributed to the local school districts in direct proportion to their wealth, rather than in the more equitable reverse proportions. The following example should be of some help in understanding this point.

EXAMPLE: Federal Aid to Education in Reverse

The following example presents two typical residential communities. One is a rather wealthy community, the other is less wealthy. The tax rate is the same in both.

	Community A	Community B
Average Assessed Valuation Per Family	$15,000	$2,000
Tax Rate	25 mills	25 mills
School Taxes Per Family	$ 375	$ 50

Assuming a uniform federal income tax rate of 22% (of course it would be more in Community A), Community A is keeping $82.50 ($375 x 22%) per family of money that would otherwise go to the federal government, while Community B is keeping $11.00 $50 x 22%).

As one studies these concepts he can't help wondering if school administrators have communicated them to taxpayers. *Increases in school taxes do not represent an equivalent increase in the total tax burden.* Taxpayers with high incomes experience very little increase in the total tax burden even when school taxes are increased substantially.

What is the solution to federal aid to education in reverse? The solution to the problem is not as simple as is pointing up the problem. The present provision which permits local taxes to be deducted from the gross income avoids double taxation. Of course, the principle of double taxation is not as pure as some would have us believe. Gross income taxes often require that taxes be paid upon all money earned, including that which is withheld for the payment of the federal income taxes. Perhaps the solution is to have the federal government return a sum of money to the states to be distributed to the school districts in an inverse ratio to the wealth of the district. This is after all about the sum and substance of most proposals for greater federal participation in the support of public education.

It has often been said that a knowledge of the sanctions of a society is a prerequisite to the understanding of that society. Surely we do not wish to make the federal income tax discriminations identified in this article sanctions of the American society.

From PDK's Desegregation Guidebook

► Here are some poignant remarks from Phi Delta Kappa's new book, *Action Patterns in School Desegregation.*

From principals: "School people are figuratively caught in the jaws of a vise comprised of legal contradictions, public opinion, and professional welfare." (David J. Brittain, Clinton, Tenn.)

"My problems are greater because I can no longer employ the type of teacher needed in any school, desegregated or not." (A West Virginia school)

From a teacher: "Would I be able to live up to what I had believed and taught for many years [after desegregation]? Would I be able to prove to him, the Negro, that I would teach him, discipline him, respect him, and associate with him on the same basis that I did with the others? Months before desegregation took place, I prayed hard. I taught correct attitudes wherever I had an opportunity—to an individual parent, to a student, to a friend, to a chance acquaintance, to my own child, to my classes." (A Kentucky high school)

From a parent: "As far as I'm concerned, those Negro pupils could stay in their schools from now on, but I know they are not going to. Therefore, I hope a few will be assigned to the school where my children attend so they won't grow up feeling as I do about the Negroes." (Columbia, Missouri)

A superintendent: "I pray to God I will have the wisdom and the backbone to do what is best for boys and girls, whether they be black or white."

The Shepherd's Guide

By **M. DALE BAUGHMAN**

As a lad my father was a shepherd. Many times I have heard him describe the sheep drives to the Indianapolis stock market, a distance of fifty miles from our South Central Indiana home. The shearing of the sheep and the problems of improving the flock through proper treatment and disease prevention were among his duties.

Twenty years ago, when I began teaching, my father declared, "I reckon there's not much difference between tendin' a flock of sheep and teachin' a roomful of kids." At the time, his homespun analogy made no impression on me. Even now I am aware of the quite obvious gap between the behavior of sheep and that of children. I hasten to admit, however, that I was both amused and amazed only recently when I glanced through my father's only reference book, "The Care, Management, and Improvement of Sheep." I must confess that the pages of this little pamphlet contain some significant implications for the care, management, and improvement of children.

Therefore, with the full realization that real education must ultimately be limited to those who insist on knowing and that the rest is mere sheep-herding, I will proceed to develop the analogy of real shepherdry and the shepherding of school children.

"The sheep industry furnishes material both for food and for clothing. Few people realize its magnitude!" The teaching trade produces material for *all* the known occupations. You name it—we make 'em! Not enough people realize the importance or the magnitude of this enterprise.

"Sheep are classified according to quality of wool:

"1. Fine wool
"2. Medium wool
"3. Long wool

"On the basis of utility the sheep of Class 1 are designated as the fine wool breeds and those of Classes 2 and 3 as the mutton breeds." In today's schools we classify children according to quality of learning equipment:

1. High achievers
2. Average achievers
3. Low achievers

Class 1 we designate as the fine equipment breed. I hope we don't insist too strongly that those in Classes 2 and 3 by arbitrarily and permanently tabbed as the "mutton breeds," although mutton is regarded by many as a desirable and highly acceptable product.

"In presenting the following fundamentals we realize that no hard and fast rules can be formulated for successful sheep raising. Rules that would suit one breeder's fancy might be entirely out of place or wholly impractical for another. Also the care of 50 sheep on a small farm is a vastly different undertaking from watching over a band of many thousand on a Western range. . . . The management must vary to meet existing conditions."

From the foregoing paragraph and other short passages in the pamphlet the writer has developed ten fundamentals relating to the nature and nurture of school children:

1. One teacher's methods cannot always be duplicated with equal success by another teacher.

2. The procedures in teaching extremely large groups are likely to be quite different from those applied to the very small groups of learners. Here is a problem in better staff utilization.

3. The techniques of care, management, and improvement must be flexible and adaptable to local conditions, be they small pasture or Western range.

4. Overall management of the learning process must vary to meet existing conditions. One may even choose not to "teach," remembering Oscar Wilde's wisdom, "Education is an admirable thing, but it is well to remember from time to time that nothing that is worth knowing can be taught."

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5. You, the shepherd, should at all times be
   A. gentle
   B. patient
   C. punctual
   D. cleanly

"There is a close relationship between the nervous organization of the sheep and its feeding habits and digestion." May I remind you again of the close relationship between the nervous schema of children and their responses to learning situations. Evaluate carefully your feeding habits. *"Sheep that make the most of their feed are those that are handled by a person who is soothing to them and shows . . . judgment in selecting food."* In choosing the food, the content to be learned, remember well that a child views everything as new and wonderful. Avoid strangulation of the curiosity.

6. *"The sheep's digestive system will handle nine-tenths of the weeds growing around the farm. However, these habits of economical grazing do not mean that the sheep should be made to pasture upon the same land continuously nor that it should be made to subsist on pasturage alone."*

Children will learn something through the simple process of forage. If no other diet is provided, they may absorb nearly all the undesirable concepts, habits and untruths of their environment. Naturally curious, children can learn without much help, but this kind of learning alone is not enough—nor should they be subjected to the same material over and over, as is sometimes the case in language arts and social studies.

"Pasturage alone will provide for maintenance but leaves too little for production. The shepherd who allows his sheep to live wholly on forage will find them running down and surely becoming unprofitable."

7. *"The feeds that are added to the diet should be varied to seasonal conditions and requirements. When pasturage is abundant, little food need be supplied."* When a pupil leaps and bounds in learning, consuming all in his path, be cautious about the "pipe-line of knowledge" technique. Yours is the role of sparkplug, not fuel pipe. When you do feed, consider wisely the present and changing conditions and requirements. New attitudes, new longings, and new hungers are more to be treasured than soon-forgotten facts.

8. *"Never feed hay or fodder day after day in the same place on the ground."* Must we always insist on traditional daily scheduling where every pupil is in the same room, in the same seat at the same precise time day after day? What's wrong with the weekly schedule—the flexible program which does not monotonize the learning process but helps it become exciting as learning ought to be?

9. *"To lead a sheep, get on its left side, place the left arm around its neck with the other hand on its rump, and tickle it slightly. The animal will walk briskly along."* To lead a pupil and make him walk briskly along the learning trail, get on his *right* side (wherever that is) and tickle him slightly—that is, touch him lightly, producing a peculiar nervous thrill or tingle. This is more an art than a science. When you have mastered the technique of leading and tickling to produce the brisk walk, you have done well and little more can be expected.

10. *"As a general rule sheep in all sections of the country should be given closer attention and better treatment."* Who among us is not aware of the glaring inequalities in the treatment and attention given to our school children throughout the land? What they all need, as did my father's sheep, is closer attention and better treatment.

► Faith in education pervades the Army, including the Chief of Staff. The Army's Contemporary Military Reading Program has been promulgated by the Chief of Staff with the goal, "professional self-improvement through purposeful reading." Army officers are provided with a "contemporary military reading list," including such books as Finletter's *Power and Policy,* Kennan's *Realities of American Foreign Policy,* and Slessor's *Strategy for the West.* Pentagon officers may be seen any time of day sipping coffee and reading *Inside Russia Today, Influence of Force in Foreign Relations,* or *Government and Science.* Chief of Staff Maxwell D. Taylor says: "Among my basic convictions is a belief that an essential part of each officer's professional equipment is a reading lamp and an easy chair."

► The practice of increasing tuition fees to cover the cost of education would "reverse the entire tradition of equal opportunity for our young people," according to a recent joint statement from the American Association of Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities and the State Universities Association. Spokesmen said that capable students should be able to continue their education regardless of income status and without having to borrow money to do so.

This attitude corresponds with a goal stated last summer by the NEA resolutions committee: "In every state a system of free, effective, public education extending from kindergarten through college and adult education and adapted to all learners."

Keeping Abreast in Education

NCSS Defines Educational Issues

► The National Council for the Social Studies, meeting in San Francisco at the end of November, had a go at defining the central issues confronting American education and came up with a list of ten which is eminently worth perusal.

In presenting the report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the National Council, Howard E. Wilson, dean, School of Education, University of California, Los Angeles, delivered a cogent appraisal of the effects of the scientific revolution before attempting to define the educational issues growing out of it. He noted that some issues—notably those involving racial integration, fiscal support, and the role of the federal government in education—are compounds of education and politics. He dealt, rather, with issues which are professional and ideational in character and on which educational leaders of the nation must take the initiative in proposing lines of policy and action. They are, in outline:

1. Can we upgrade American education sufficiently to prepare a whole people adequately for the heavy responsibilities of the coming decades?
2. Can we, within a program of universal education, adequately identify and educate the particularly gifted?
3. Can we reorient an educational philosophy and function which have been concerned with welding diverse groups into an American unity sufficiently to provide for the degree of cultural pluralism, nationally and internationally, which now seems necessary?
4. Can we utilize technological developments in the field of communication, increased knowledge about persons and groups, and the discerned principles of institutional management to conduct our growing educational enterprise with such efficiency as to achieve the purposes of education within the financial resources of our society?
5. Can we, after considering the whole program of education vertically and horizontally, identify, agree upon, and support priorities in curriculum and procedures for our schools and colleges?
6. Can we develop a more effective educational ladder extending from the kindergarten through the schools and varied institutions of higher education into the reaches of a burgeoning adult education?
7. Can we more successfully inter-relate the academic disciplines and the fields of professional education?

Dean Wilson suggests that these and related queries must be considered with consummate care by members of the educational profession. They are central to the educational reappraisal on which the profession no less than the general public has embarked.

Next Trip: to the Orient

► The Comparative Education Society will sponsor a seminar and field study of education in Japan and Korea during August and September of 1959, according to Gerald Read, secretary, whose address is Kent State University, Kent, Ohio. The academic director will again be William W. Brickman, editor of *School and Society*, and professor of education at New York University. Read will serve as administrative director.

Last summer Brickman and Read led a group of seventy-one U. S. and Puerto Rican educators in a study of education in the Soviet Union. In 1957 forty-one representatives of the society visited South America and in 1956 forty delegates visited Europe.

The proposed itinerary calls for departure from the West Coast on August 16 and return on September 19, with the possibility of stopping in Hawaii or going to Formosa, the Philippines, or Hong Kong. The group will spend a week in conferences and visitations at International Christian University, Mitaka; another week at International House, Tokyo; two weeks in a tour of the Japanese interior, including Osaka, Kyoto, Kobe, Nara, Kyushu, etc.; and a week in Seoul, Korea, and environs.

The Japanese have arranged an International Conference on Educational Research to coincide with the society's stay in Tokyo. Arrangements are being made by Tokyo University with Read's assistance. It is expected that a Phi Delta Kappa representative will report on the research symposium being sponsored by the fraternity in cooperation with the University of Virginia in Charlottsville this April 28 and 29.

* * *

► Many colleges and universities are now announcing installment plans, borrowing the commercial come-on: "Learn now, pay later." A Harvard University official says this reflects the democratization of higher education. (Some of us await hopefully the first mortician's ad thus to democratize the final expense: "Die now, pay later.")

New NSF Fellowship Program

► On November 30 the National Science Foundation announced a new program of summer fellowships for secondary school teachers. Designed to enable secondary school teachers to undertake further graduate study and research, the fellowships will be offered for study in the sciences and mathematics. Approximately 750 awards will be available.

Applicants must be citizens of the U. S., must be a science or math teacher in a secondary school, must have had three years' experience in that capacity, and must hold a baccalaureate degree or its equivalent.

Stipends will be computed at the rate of $75 for each week of tenure. Travel and dependency allowances will normally be provided, and the foundation will pay tuition and fees. The normal tenure will be two full summers of study, but tenures as short as one summer session or as long as three are available. Fellowships are available for study in the biological, physical, and mathematical sciences.

Teachers should *not* apply to the N.S.F., but to the Teacher Program, American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1515 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 5, D. C. Completed applications must be received by January 19, 1959. Selections will be announced in late March.

College Teacher: The Envy of Society

► Quoted from *College Teaching as a Career,* distributed among 175,000 U. S. undergraduates by the American Council on Education:

"The college teacher is devoted to the search for truth, and as such he is the envy of all those in our society who are paid to obscure or distort it. He is the only one who is paid to be as honest, as simple, and as serious as he can. . . The work is indeed hard, as it must be since its purpose is to transform a child into a man; but there is no work that makes so happy those who do it well. . . The best teacher is willing to be forgotten. His only reassurance needs to be the faith that somehow his efforts have increased the amount of mind in a world which can never have too much of that commodity. . . His final reward is the quality of his life, which teaching has helped to shape.

—*Mark Van Doren*

* * *

► A recent NEA survey reveals that 59 per cent of the nation's elementary school principals are men. Their average age is 43, while the average age for women principals is 52.

The average male principal has had eight years' experience, 5.8 with the present school system, as a principal. The average woman principal has had nine years' experience in the present system, plus about 17½ years' background as a classroom teacher.

Men have an average of two dependents and receive a small income from outside earnings. One-fourth of the women have dependents and few have outside income.

BOOKS

for leaders

'. . . of Inestimable Value'

ACTION PATTERNS IN SCHOOL DESEGREGATION, A GUIDEBOOK, by Herbert Wey and John Corey. Bloomington, Ind.: Phi Delta Kappa, 1959. ix plus 279 pp. $1.50. Reviewed by Elmer Garinger (Beta 423), *supt. of schools,* Charlotte, N. C.

THE publication of this guidebook should prove of inestimable value to superintendents, boards of education, principals, teachers, and lay people in dealing with the difficult problems of desegregation at the present time. The authors have brought together in one volume information that has accumulated since the historic announcement in May, 1954, by the Supreme Court. The book will be of value to school people all over the nation. Although the problem is most acute in the southern states, it is recognized that it exists in other parts of the country as well. Consequently, the careful presentation of facts that have been assembled in states as far apart as Texas and Maryland, Florida and West Virginia will be welcomed by schoolmen everywhere.

The division of the book into four main parts, each concentrating on one phase of the subject, will make it convenient to use. Painstaking thoroughness on the part of the authors through visits, interviews, and correspondence has provided a wealth of helpful material answering the questions that have been asked for several years: (1) What can we do in our communities to prepare our people for compliance with the law of the land? (2) How shall we go about developing a plan for the desegregation of our schools? Shall we do it with professional school people or with school officials and lay citizens? Shall we start with the primary grades or with the high school or college? (3) Is this our responsibility alone or is it a community responsibility? In carrying out a plan, what people and what organizations should participate and in what way? (4) If desegregation is begun, shall we make significant changes in the curriculum, in the organization of the schools for instructional purposes, etc.?

The authors of this guidebook have literally combed the country for answers to these ques-

tions. A busy but interested and sincere superintendent or other school representative has in reliable and documentary form in this publication a wealth of material that will help him in arriving at the best decisions for his community.

As one reads the guidebook, he is aware of the fact that the authors have an underlying philosophy of respect for the law of the land as promulgated by the Supreme Court. One of the strong features is a section reviewing the Supreme Court decisions and explaining the varying interpretations of a "prompt and reasonable start" and "with all deliberate speed." Now and then, there is evidence that the writers are willing to generalize in regard to what they consider certain basic principles; for example, they point out that Negroes sincerely want better schools for their children and that the level of achievement for Negroes must be raised if disturbances are to be kept at a minimum. Instance after instance is recited to pile up evidence that progress toward compliance with the Supreme Court decision is being made. One is impressed with the fact that almost no question that has been raised is left untouched. Cases are given to illustrate that economic unrest and unemployment are often associated with failure to desegregate in a community. Evidence of the objectivity of the writers in their descriptive account of what has happened in these four years is apparent on every page. Sometimes they are painfully blunt in pointing to state officials, board of education officials, or police officers in their failure to take a positive stand. They call the names of places where such occurrences took place. The many examples of communities that have either desegregated or are in the process of desegregating their schools in different ways convince the reader that there is no one answer, that the prejudices of the people are deep, that action must be patient and understanding.

There are some areas in which many readers would welcome even more concrete illustrations. Although some very effective examples are given of work done by pupils, teachers, and principals, much more will be needed as this program becomes a reality. Likewise, the importance of lay groups and the newspapers and radio chains, while being very definitely recognized, will require further recognition. The community that is trying to put into operation a desegregation program will need more help in this respect. The place of parents and the police force receive careful consideration, but it cannot be overemphasized.

In most southern communities, two questions that concern the future are almost always raised. They are dealt with in the guidebook, but in a limited way only. In changing from a dual system of public education to a single system, shall the city or county be made into districts and pupils required to attend the schools in their district? A second problem that always arises in conversations among board members is that of desegregation of a staff. Baltimore and St. Louis may use Negro teachers for white children, but can the smaller places, and what techniques and procedures can be used to achieve this ideal?

Since the school systems of Baltimore, the District of Columbia, Louisville, and St. Louis are used so extensively by way of illustration, the inquiring reader will want to know more of the background and of the subsequent experiences in those cities. Do the religious affiliations or some other variable of the people in those urban centers have a bearing on the ease with which the change was made? Furthermore, has the experience in these cities since compliance with the Supreme Court been such that the children of white parents have been removed from the public schools and placed in private schools? To what extent? Is the public school in these cities becoming a school just for Negroes; and if the trend is in this direction, what help can be given to such a community in solving such a problem?

Dr. Herbert W. Wey and Mr. John Corey, Phi Delta Kappa, and the Ford Foundation are all to be congratulated on their cooperation in making such a timely and valuable publication available to so many distressed and inquiring school people, boards of education, and lay people. May we hope that this is not the last effort of its kind by the fraternity and that some of the gaps indicated above will be filled in the future?

Free Copies to Superintendents

When requested, and as long as the supply lasts, Phi Delta Kappa will mail up to five copies of *Action Patterns in School Desegregation, a Guidebook,* to *school superintendents* anywhere in the United States without charge. Address Phi Delta Kappa, 8th and Union, Bloomington, Ind. Please do not send a request unless you can make good use of the book.

Requests for additional copies and orders from non-school agencies will be filled at $1.50 per copy.

The generous Ford Foundation gift which made the book's preparation possible also permits free distribution within school systems where it can be helpful.

S,R BONDS

Dear PDK President: (Copy to the Editor)

. . . Last night I inadvertently picked up the October and November [PHI DELTA KAPPANS]. Here you have Jim Finn writing about the "good guys and the bad guys" and Max Rafferty writing about some characters that have been concerning me for the past decade. I protest. I complain. If you don't quit printing that kind of stuff, I'm going to have to start reading the PHI DELTA KAPPAN and that would upset my reading pattern. Already I have more on my "must" list for reading than I can find time for.

Incidentally, I didn't agree with Getzels and Jackson ["The Meaning of 'Giftedness' "]. They're headed back into a cesspool of mediocrity if they dilute concepts to include everything. . . . —CECIL HARDESTY (Alpha Epsilon 408), *superintendent*, County of San Diego, Calif.

Dear Editor:

. . . I am glad that you gave space for Rickover directly to reveal the finer points of what Rafferty, were he to think of it, might identify as "Slobbery from the Cerebrum—The Cult of the Sirens of Sophistry." I hope that the Admiral has seen Brickman's comments—not that it would make any impression, for "his omniscience" seems to be one above being bothered by such mundane matters as facts, or the sacrosanct method.

Congratulations on your courage, your policy, and your perception as an editor.—D. Ross PUGMIRE (Alpha Alpha 69), *professor of education*, the University of Oklahoma, Norman.

Dear Editor:

Many members of our high school staff have read [Rafferty, "Cult of the Slob"] in the November issue. Their comment has been, "Terrific." I know many others would like to have copies of this article for their files. I would like to buy copies if available. . . —JULES BERTIN (Xi 702), North Allegheny Junior-Senior High School, Pittsburgh 37, Pa.

Dear Editor:

I am a long-time psychiatrist—much child psychiatry. I have been fed up with clichés and assumptions that all delinquency is "psychiatric illness," "lack of security," etc. And the way [Max Rafferty] hit nails on the head is wonderful. . . —FORREST N. ANDERSON (Alpha Chi 93), M. D. Sc. D. (Med.), Van Nuys, Calif.

Dear Mr. Rafferty:

Your article . . . is one of the most provocative pieces of writing on education I have seen and read in a long time. I may say that since moving to New York City two years ago I have been more impressed with the problem [delinquency] than ever before, even when I travelled around the country a good bit as Commissioner of Education. The case of the principal who jumped off the roof is only one of the most dramatic cases proving that the Slobs have taken control of many of the schools here. A recent series of articles by a newspaperman who posed as a teacher here for two months proves the case conclusively.

I wish you could go around the country stirring up our people, including the schoolmen of our professional associations, to organize to get rid of the Slobs. What troubles me is that many unenlightened do-gooders weep alligator tears for the ill-treated Slob. Not long ago the minister of one of the best-known churches in America here in New York preached a sermon in which he expressed his sympathy for a half-dozen Slobs who knifed to death a polio victim. He said society was to blame for them. I'm sure he had a point about our slums here, but I wondered that he hadn't expressed some sorrow for the parents of the slain boy who, living in the same under-privileged neighborhood, had nevertheless brought up their child in some decency.

The only suggestion I have to make about your article is that a little more emphasis should be placed on the fact that many parents who are not brought up to be Slobs (some in the "best" families) condone Slobbism at home and in the school. School boards, representing the public at large, ought to do something about the matter.—EARL J. MCGRATH (Zeta 816) *executive officer*, Institute of Higher Education, Teachers College, Columbia.

Dear Editor:

I have been reading educational magazines for the past forty-six years and it seems to me that I have never seen any other publication equal to the November and December issues of the PHI DELTA KAPPAN. I think that the KAPPAN is the world's best for its type of coverage.

Had you not had the good judgment to print "The Hunted Seal" right after "Cult of the Slob" you might have had more mail than you would have had time to read. . . —E. L. NORRIS (Alpha 1167), 3331 Guilford Ave., Indianapolis 5, Ind.

Dear Editor:

I have just finished reading [Maynard Bemis'] article, "Men and Money," in the December PHI DELTA KAPPAN. My wife, who like myself is a career teacher, read it also. We both found the ideas very sensible and seemingly feasible. . .

Any so-called merit plan always has the danger of personal politics. . . But, assuming that this evil can be overcome and some method such as you propose is adopted categorizing teachers as either Professional, Career, or Master teachers, there still remains one vitally important aspect which was

not discussed. I refer to the plea for an extended school year. . . Any active classroom teacher will agree that to extend the school year under existing conditions without making provisions for lightening the teaching load, reducing the required paper work and grading, and the myriad of other time-consuming trivia in order to allow more time for preparation, study, and research would not only be unwise but completely out of the question. . .

I fervently hope that positive action along the lines you suggest will take shape in the near future. But I am afraid that far too many administrators are unwilling to discuss the situation as frankly as you have and be so realistic and practical in a possible solution.—NORMAN L. DARROW (Beta Lambda 12), Wiley High School, Terre Haute, Ind.

Dear Editor:

I want to express my appreciation for the article, "The Education of Youth in the USA and the USSR," by Moehlman (November KAPPAN). I am interested in using facts which appear in this article as an editorial in our junior high school paper, the "Rebel Review."—JACK M. PRATT, JR. (Alpha Xi 812), *principal,* Mobile Public Schools, Ala.

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